DOCUMENT RESUME

ED 330 920 CG 022 950

AUTHOR	Hanson, Robert, Ed.; And Others
TITLE	Career Development: Preparing for the 21st Century.
INSTITUTION	ERIC Clearinghouse on Counseling and Personnel Services, Ann Arbor, Mich.; Tennessee Univ., Knoxville. Dept. of Technological and Adult Education.
SPONS AGENCY	Office of Educational Research and Improvement (ED), Washington, DC.; Tennessee State Dept. of Education, Nashville.
PUB DATE	89
CONTRACT	ID89-3276; RI88062011
NOTE	177p.; "Reproduced by ERIC/CAPS with permission of the Comprehensive Career Development Program at the University of Tennessee at Knoxville, 1991."
AVAILABLE FROM	ERIC/CAPS, 2108 School of Education, University of Michigan, Ann Arbor, MI 48109-1259 ($16.95).
PUB TYPE	Collected Works - General (020) -- Information Analyses - ERIC Clearinghouse Products (071)
EDRS PRICE	MF01/PC08 Plus Postage.
DESCRIPTORS	Adolescents; *Career Counseling; *Career Development; Career Exploration; *Counselor Role; Elementary Secondary Education; *Futures (of Society); Higher Education; High School Students; *School Counseling; School Guidance; *Vocational Education; Young Adults

ABSTRACT

The articles in this monograph deal with various aspects of career development and the difficulties youth will have in making decisions that will propel them into the 21st century. Included are an introduction by Garry Walz, a foreword by Robert Hanson, and these articles: (1) "The Changing Face of the Workplace: 1986-2000" (Kenneth B. Hoyt); (2) "A Response to the Challenges of the Year 2000" (Susan E. Katzman); (3) "Integrating Equity into the School" (Lawrence M. DeRidder); (4) "The Administrator and Career Development Programs" (Niel A. Edmunds); (5) "Delivering Career Development Outcomes Through Vocational Education" (Harry N. Drier); (6) "Adolescent Career Decision Processes as Coping Responses to the Social Environment" (David A. Jepsen); (7) "A Saleable Skill as a High School Graduation Requirement? Is That Really the Question?" (Edwin L. Herr and Thomas E. Long); (8) "Career Exploration" (George W. Johnson); (9) "Preparing Youth for Changing Roles and Tasks in Society, Work, and Family" (L. Sunny Hansen and Marianne M. Yost); (10) "Leisure and Career Development in the High School Years" (Carl McDaniels); and (11) "How to Remodel and Revitalize Your School Guidance Program" (Norman C. Gysbers). (NB)

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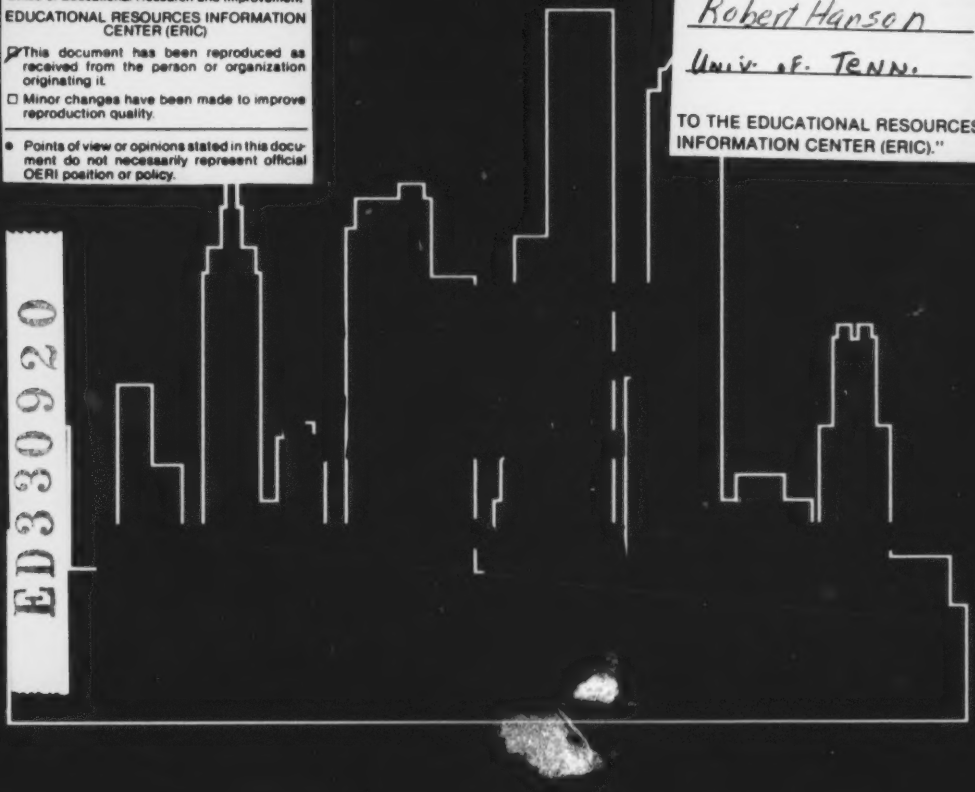

Preparing for the 21st Century

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This project was supported in part by Contract No. ID89-3276, Department of Education, State of Tennessee, and in part by The University of Tennessee. However, the opinions expressed herein do not necessarily reflect the position of the Department of Education, or The University of Tennessee.

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Introduction

We are especially pleased with two aspects of this publication. First, it provides thoughtful and incisive coverage of significant topics in career development. Dr. Robert Hanson, the Editor, assembled a group of knowledgeable writers and program developers and they speak with authority on a wide variety of critical topics in career development. Seldom in one volume do you find people with such impressive credentials writing on topics of such great interest and utility. Both the coverage of the topics and the quality of the writing recommend it for pre- and post-service use as well as a source of pleasant and rewarding reading for personal professional development.

Second, the book, developed under the leadership of Dr. Robert Hanson under a contract with the Department of Education of the State of Tennessee, was graciously offered to ERIC/CAPS at the initiative of Dr. Lawrence M. DeRidder. This parallels experiences ERIC/CAPS has had with other organizations where a mutual interest in improving the dissemination of useful resources and ideas to counselors has led to an outstanding publication. We salute both Dr. Hanson and Dr. DeRidder for their assistance in making this volume available to ERIC/CAPS so that counselors about the country might profit from its use.

Garry R. Walz
Director, ERIC/CAPS

Foreword

The renewed interest and enthusiasm for a comprehensive career education program has heartened many educators. Those groups who may be especially excited with this change of status are our secondary schools' vocational teachers and guidance counselors. These groups in particular recognize the impact this emphasis can have on the student population. Primarily, their concern for relevant content and talent development applicable in the world of work may have heightened their awareness of the importance of these educational goals.

The models for career development that have emerged across our country herald the reawakening of this emphasis. The recent thrust for career development activities is not at all coincidental. Those responsible for enacting the Carl Perkins legislation have recognized that career development has application for the wide range of student needs and, in particular, the student at risk. The recent "fine tuning" of our academic requirements could, in the minds of many, lead to an elitist approach to education. What is lacking is the attention shown those students who are non-college bound and who deserve equal but different learning opportunities.

The career development programs that are gaining momentum will serve all students equitably and are designed to allow all students to realize their full potential. The Vocational-Technical Division of the Tennessee State Department of Education has funded a Comprehensive Career Development Project that began in 1988. One of the initiatives of this project was to provide a professional monograph that would provide inspiration and stimulus to educators in Tennessee and across the nation. The articles included within this volume deal with various aspects of career development and the difficulties youth will have in making decisions that will propel them into the 21st Century.

Dr. Robert Hanson, Editor

Dr. Robert Hanson is the Project Director of the Comprehensive Career Development Program and Associate Professor in the Department of Technological and Adult Education at the University of Tennessee at Knoxville.

The Changing Face of the Workplace: 1986-2000

Kenneth B. Hoyt

Introduction

The topics of (a) the changing **workplace** and (b) the changing **workforce**, while obviously related, call for quite different kinds of data. Recently, this author published an article aimed at discussing the changing **workforce** (Hoyt, 1988). The purpose of this paper will be to complement the data in that article by concentrating attention on the changing **workplace**.

To illustrate the complexity of the topic, consider the question: "WHAT DO THE FOLLOWING STATEMENTS HAVE IN COMMON?"

- In the 1990s, the average education needed for employment opportunities will be 13.7 years.
- By the year 2000, jobs for high school dropouts will be scarce.
- Almost all new jobs being created today are in service occupations.
- High tech will make secretarial jobs obsolete.

The answer is: EACH OF THESE STATEMENTS IS FALSE. Yet, these and other false statements appear with great regularity in the popular press—and sometimes even in the professional literature.

Career development professionals need to know how to determine if a particular statistic is accurate and how each should be interpreted. This paper aims to provide some background information required to carry out this responsibility.

Kenneth B. Hoyt is Distinguished Professor of Education at The Kansas State University in Manhattan as well as former National Director of Career Education in the U.S. Office of Education.

Data Sources

The United States Department of Labor is the most reliable source of data regarding both the changing workforce and the changing workplace. Four of their publications are especially important data resources and should be part of the working library of every career development professional.

They include:

Occupational Outlook Handbook. Published every other year, this document (commonly referred to as the *OOH*) summarizes current status and predicted future status of about 225 occupations—comprising about 80% of all jobs in the economy. The Appendix contains summary information about 125 additional occupations which, collectively, account for about another 10% of the jobs.

Occupational Projections and Training Data. This is also published every other year as a supplement to the *OOH* described above. It provides basic data showing the basis on which projections found in the *OOH* were made. Many career development professionals will find continuing need for the data showing the percentage of workers in each occupation whose major training for their job was: (a) a college degree; (b) some college; (c) high school vocational education; and (d) employer training.

Occupational Outlook Quarterly. Published four times per year, this serves as a supplement to the *OOH*. Some issues contain summaries in chart/graph form of data taken from the *OOH*. Others take a specific occupational area and go into more depth than can be found in the *OOH* regarding its current status and likely future. Still other articles are of general interest to career development specialists.

Monthly Labor Review. This publication combines statistical data with careful interpretations of such data by U.S. Department of Labor (DOL) experts. Topics covered include the economy, the major industries, the changing workforce, and the changing workplace.

All of these documents are for sale by the Superintendent of Documents, U.S. Government Printing Office, Washington, DC 20402. Careful study of their contents is the best hope career development professionals have of acquiring the kinds of accurate knowledge needed to combat the many popular but false kinds of "scare statistics" now common in the popular press.

The Changing Workplace: The Big Picture

In 1986, the total labor force was 111.6 million. By the year 2000, it is expected to be 133 million persons, an increase of 19% (Silvestri & Lukasiewicz, 1987). This is only about half of the 35% increase that took place between 1972 and 1986 when 31 million persons were added to the labor force (Fullerton, 1987). Contrary to popular belief, the **rate** of change in number of persons in the labor force is becoming less, not greater as we move toward the year 2000.

One obvious way of looking at **change** in the workplace is to examine changes in the number of workers expected in each occupation. All DOL "change" statements regarding predicted numbers of workers during the 1986-2000 period are made based on this expected overall increase of 19%. Thus, if, in a given occupation, the change was much greater than 19%, it would be described as "faster than average" while, conversely, if the figure is much less than 19%, it would be described as "slower than average." The DOL has its own phrases for use in describing occupations by the rate at which their number of workers is expected to grow (Fountain, 1987). When you see one of the following statements in a DOL publication pertaining to predicted changes during the 1986-2000 period, this is what it means:

If the statement reads:	**Employment is projected to:**
"grow much faster than average"	Increase 35% or more
"grow faster than average"	Increase 25-34%
"grow about as fast as average"	Increase 14-24%
"grow more slowly than average"	Increase 5-13%
"show little change"	Increase/Decrease 4% or less
"decline"	Decrease 5% or more

The other basic ways in which the topic of occupational change can be meaningfully discussed are to study data related to: (a) new occupations to be created that never before existed; and (b) changes in performance requirements taking place within currently existing occupations. Knowing that most of the 21 million new work force members will find jobs in currently existing occupations, it is clear that completely new occupations will have only a very small influence on total occupational change. On the other hand, the topic of internal changes within currently existing occupations, especially those brought about by the use of high

technology, is a major area to study when questions of occupational change are pursued.

The "Fastest Growing" vs. the "Most Jobs" Controversy

Career development professionals need to be equally concerned and equally knowledgeable regarding both (a) the fastest growing occupations and (b) the occupations predicted to add the most new jobs during the 1986-2000 period of time. The career decision-making process would, of course, be much easier if these turned out to be one and the same. Unfortunately, almost exactly the opposite condition exists—i.e., there is almost no overlap between those occupations expected to "grow fastest" and those expected to create the "most job openings." While this may appear strange at first glance, it is easily explained when one considers that: (a) most of the "fastest growing" occupations are relatively new and relatively small in terms of total numbers of workers thus making it easy to demonstrate large percentage growth figures; and (b) most of the occupations predicted to have the "most jobs" are older, well established occupations currently employing large numbers of workers thus making it extremely difficult for them to show a **high percentage change** in workers in spite of **large numbers**.

The Spring, 1988 issue of *Occupational Outlook Quarterly* features an article (Kutscher, 1988) containing, among other things, two tables—one containing data on the 27 occupations expected to have the largest job growth between 1986 and 2000 and the other containing data on the 20 occupations expected to grow fastest during this period of time. To make comparisons, only the top 20 occupations with the largest predicted job growth are used along with the 20 fastest growing occupations.

When data in these two tables are compared, it can be seen that:

1. The 20 fastest growing occupations **combined** will account for only 6.8% of projected job growth during the 1986-2000 period. This is a total of 1,437,000 of the 21 million predicted new jobs. These occupations are:

Legal Assistant	Medical Assistant
Physical Therapist	Physical Therapist Assistants/Aides

Data Processing Equipment
Podiatrists
Medical Record Technician
Computer Programmer
Dental Hygienist
Physician Assistant
Occupational Therapist
Data Entry Keyers, Composing
Homemaker-Home Health Aide
Computer System Analyst
Employment Interviewer
Radiologic Technologist/ Technician
Dental Assistant
Operations Research Analyst
Optometrists
Peripheral Electronic Data Processing Equipment Operator

2. The single occupation expected to add the most jobs during the 1986-2000 period—"Retail Salesperson"—will account for 5.6% of projected job growth (1,201,000 jobs). This is almost as great as the combined total of the 20 fastest growing occupations.
3. The 20 occupations projected to add the largest number of new workers during the 1986-2000 period, taken as a whole, represent 43.8% of the **total** projected job growth during this period. These 20 occupations alone are projected to add 9,347,000 of the approximately 21 million new jobs to be created. These 20 occupations include:

Retail Salesperson
Registered Nurse
General Manager/Top Executive
Truckdriver
Food Counter Worker
Secretary
Accountant/Auditor
Food Preparation
Computer Systems Analyst
Receptionist/ Information Clerk
Waiter/Waitress
Janitor/Cleaner
Cashier
General Office Clerk
Nursing Aide
Orderly/Attendant
Guard
Computer Programmer
Kindergarten/ Elementary Teacher
Restaurant Cook
Licensed Practical Nurse

When projected job growth in major occupational groups is compared with the expected 19% overall growth (Fountain, 1987), five are projected to grow faster than 19%, three more slowly than 19%, and two are projected to decline. These figures by major occupational group include:

Occupational Group	Expected % Employment Change 1986-2000
Technicians & Related Support Workers	38%
Service Workers	31%
Sales Workers	30%
Executive/Adm./Managerial Workers	29%
Professional Workers	27%
Precision Production/Craft/Repair	12%
Adm. Support Workers (includes Clerical)	11%
Operators/Fabricators/Laborers	3%
Agriculture/Forestry/Fishery	-5%

The "How Much Education Will Be Needed?" Controversy

At the 1987 American Vocational Association Convention, Ronald Kutscher (1987), Associate Commissioner, Office of Economic Growth and Employment Projections, U.S. Department of Labor (DOL), distributed a series of DOL charts pertaining to projected education/work relationships during the 1986-2000 period. Two of these tables were designed to illustrate that:

1. The percent of jobs requiring some form of postsecondary education will **increase** from 25% to 27%; the percent requiring a high school diploma will **decrease** from 41% to 40%; and the percent requiring less than a high school diploma will decrease from 34% to 33%.
2. Of the expected 21.4 million new jobs, 37.8% will require some postsecondary education; 35.8% will require a high school diploma, while only 26.4% will require less than a high school diploma. **The trend, in terms of new jobs, is definitely in the direction of requiring more education.**

When these kinds of data are combined, the following figures emerge in terms of numbers and percentages.

Category	1986	2000	Increase
Total Labor Force	116m.	133.0m.	+21.4m. (19% of increase)
Postsecondary Education Required	27.9m. (25.0%)	35.91m. (27.0%)	+8.0m. (37.8% of increase)
High School Grad Required	45.76m. (41%)	53.2m. (40%)	+7.44m. (35.8% of increase)
Less than High School Required	37.94m. (34.0%)	43.89m. (33.0%)	+5.95m. (26.4% of increase)

The figures presented above lead to a number of observations, each of which help to provide some data-based answers to the "How much education will be needed?" controversy. These observations include:

1. The general trend toward requiring more education can be seen both in terms of changes in the projected total work force and in the projected new jobs. However, these changes are much more dramatic when only projected new jobs are considered. The percentages don't vary much when the total labor force is considered.
2. The actual numbers of workers in each of the three levels of education are projected to increase **for all three categories**. Those warning that jobs will become scarce for high school dropouts should note that the number of jobs projected to require less than a high school diploma is projected to **increase** by 5.95 million between 1986 and 2000. Granted, many would consider the occupations involved to be undesirable career choices. That is not the point. They **will** exist.
3. Even by the year 2000, more jobs requiring less than a high school diploma (43.89 million) are projected to exist than are jobs requiring **any** form of postsecondary education (35.91 million). Those who contend that postsecondary education will be required for most jobs in the Year 2000 appear to be wrong.

To put this controversy in perspective relative to the "most jobs vs fastest growing jobs" controversy, it was necessary to consult the 1988–89 edition of the *Occupational Outlook Handbook* (Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1988). By doing so, the amount of education required for each of the 20 occupations in both lists referred to earlier was determined. The actual page number in the *OOH* on which the "training required" data can be found is shown below for each occupation. Using these figures, the following observations appear to be pertinent:

1. Of the 20 occupations with the largest predicted job growth during the 1986–2000 period:
   a. Five will require less than a high school diploma. These include: (1) Janitors and Cleaners (p. 282); (2) Food Counter and related workers (p. 267); (3) Nursing Aides, Orderlies, and Attendants (p. 273); (4) Food Preparation Workers (p. 265); and (5) Restaurant Cooks (p. 265). Together, these five occupations will account for 9.5% of the total projected job growth (2,050,000 jobs).
   b. Eight will require no more than a high school diploma. These include: (1) Retail Salespersons (p. 221); (2) Waiters and Waitresses (p. 268); (3) Cashiers (p. 213); (4) Truckdrivers (p. 398); (5) General Office Clerks (p. 236); (6) Secretaries (most of them) (p. 245); (7) Guards (p. 261); and (8) Receptionists and Information Clerks (p. 242). Together, these eight occupations will account for 21.6% of the projected job growth (4,604,000 jobs).
   c. Three appear to require **some** postsecondary education but generally less than a four-year college degree. These include: (1) Registered Nurses (about half do have four-year degrees) (p. 151); (2) Computer Programmers (p. 204); and (3) Licensed Practical Nurses (p. 170). Together, these three occupations will account for 6.6% of the projected job growth (1,185,000 jobs).
   d. Four appear to require a four-year college degree or more. These include: (1) General Managers and Top Executives (p. 26); (2) Accountants and Auditors (p. 14); (3) Kindergarten and Elementary School Teachers (p. 118); and (4) Computer System Analysts (p. 66). Together, these four occupations will account for 7.1% of the projected job growth (1,518,000 jobs).
   e. Viewed as a package of data, it can be seen that:

(1) About one-half of the projected new jobs in these 20 occupations will require a high school diploma.
(2) More of these projected new jobs will require less than a high school diploma than will require either post-secondary subbaccalaureate training or a four-year college degree.
(3) Of those occupations in this list requiring any form of postsecondary education, almost half require training at the subbaccalaureate level and slightly over half require four-year college degrees.

2. Of the 20 occupations expected to be the fastest growing during the 1986-2000 period:
   a. One—Homemaker/Home Health Aide—will require less than a high school education (p. 281). New jobs in this occupation will account for .5% of the total projected job growth (111,000 jobs).
   b. Three will require no more than a high school education. These include: (1) Medical Assistants (p. 272); (2) Physical and Corrective Therapy Assistants and Aides (not found); and (3) Data Entry Keyers. Together, these three occupations will account for .8% of the projected growth (163,000 jobs).
   c. Eight will require some postsecondary education but, for most jobs, less than a four-year college degree. These include: (1) Legal Assistants (p. 208); (2) Data Processing Equipment Repairers (p. 300); (3) Medical Record Technicians (p. 172); (4) Computer Programmer (p. 204); (5) Radiologic Technologists and Technicians (p. 176); (6) Dental Hygienists (p. 161); (7) Dental Assistant (p. 270); and (8) Peripheral Electronic Data Processing Equipment Operators (p. 233). Together, these eight occupations will account for 3.4% of the projected job growth (886,142 jobs).
   d. Eight will require at least a four-year college degree. These include: (1) Physical Therapist (p. 144); (2) Podiatrist (p. 132); (3) Computer System Analyst (p. 66); (4) Employment Interviewer (p. 22); (5) Physician Assistant (p. 146); (6) Operations Research Analysts (p. 70); (7) Occupational Therapist (p. 139); and (8) Optometrists (p. 128). Together, these eight occupations will account for 2.1% of the projected job growth (416,000 jobs).
   e. Viewed as a package of data, it can be seen that:

(1) A clear and decisive majority of these jobs will require some form of postsecondary education. Relatively few jobs in the 20 fastest growing occupations are projected to be available to either high school graduates or high school dropouts.
(2) The largest number of projected job openings in the 20 fastest growing occupations will require postsecondary subbaccalaureate training, but **not** four-year college degrees.

High School Vocational Education and the Changing Workplace

Some secondary school educators will be interested in looking at the "How much education will be needed?" controversy from the standpoint of the projected number of new jobs for those occupations DOL classifies in the "high school vocational training is useful" category. Data required to study this topic are found in DOL's publication *Occupational Projections and Training Data* (1988). A total of 22 occupations are listed in this category. Of these, 17 are footnoted to indicate that high school vocational training is not the **only** way persons can find training for these occupations. These 22 occupations, along with the DOL projections of new jobs to be generated between 1986 and 2000 appear below:

Occupation	Projected No. New Jobs, 1986-2000
General Office Clerks	462,000
Secretaries	424,000
Receptionists and Information Clerks	282,000
Computer Operators/Peripheral Equipment Operators	148,000
Bookkeeping, Accounting, and Auditing Clerks	92,000
Automotive Mechanics	60,000
Musicians	42,000
Printing Press Operators	40,000
File Clerks	32,000
Brokerage and Statement Clerks	30,000

Occupation (Continued)	Projected No. New Jobs, 1986-2000
Precision Woodworkers	30,000
Lithographers and Photoengravers	19,000
Tool and Die Makers	8,000
Billing, Cost, and Rate Clerks	5,000
Drafters	5,000
Machinists	-5,000 (NOTE: A loss)
Compositors and Typesetters	-6,000 (NOTE: A loss)
Statistical Clerks	-19,000 (NOTE: A loss)
Payroll and Timekeeping Clerks	-25,000 (NOTE: A loss)
Stenographers	-50,000 (NOTE: A loss)
Data Entry Keyers	-51,000 (NOTE: A loss)
Typists and Word Processors	-140,000 (NOTE: A loss)

Ignoring those occupations that are listed above which are expected to experience an actual decline in workers during the 1986-2000 period, the data reported above indicate that a total of 1,679,000 of the expected 21.4 million new jobs (7.8%) are in occupations for which high school vocational training is considered useful in preparing for employment. These DOL figures lead to the following observations:

1. DOL did not include **any** occupations for which health-related occupational training is needed. They appear not to recognize that such training is being done anywhere at the high school level.
2. A large number of new jobs are projected in Business Education. DOL feels high schools are offering considerable high school vocational skills training in this area. Numbers reported for all other areas are too low to serve as strong justification for specific vocational skills training at the secondary school level. The value of general employability skills acquired by high school vocational education students cannot be seen here. However, these data do **not** refute the need for high school vocational education.

3. The seven occupations projected to actually **decline** in numbers between 1986–2000 serve as clear justification for questioning their specific existence in high school vocational education programs.

Other Considerations

A comprehensive view of the topic, "The Changing Face of the Workplace" would be several times as long as this paper. At a minimum, additional topics to be addressed would include:

1. The influence of technology on changing the nature of essential tasks to be performed within already existing occupations—i.e., one does not have to create new occupations in order to change the workplace.
2. The importance of clearly differentiating between "service occupations" and "service-producing industries"—i.e., while 90%+ of new occupations are projected to be in "service-producing industries," far fewer will be in "service occupations."
3. The continuing growth in small business and relative decline in the proportion of jobs to be found in big businesses.
4. The continuing rapid growth in part-time jobs and in jobs that can be done within the home/family structure rather than at any employer work site.
5. The impact of the international marketplace both on gaining and losing jobs within the United States.
6. The changing meaning of "work" in total lifestyle of American workers—including workplace arrangements reflecting such lifestyle worker problems as child care and the growing importance of volunteer work.
7. The changing face of organized labor in the United States occupational society.
8. The implications of the fact that "replacement jobs," not "new jobs," are the largest single source of job openings for job seekers to consider.

Those who wish to consider the topic of "The Changing Face of the Workplace" in a comprehensive manner will, at a minimum, find it necessary to devote considerable study to each of these topics.

Concluding Remarks

The basic underlying purposes of this paper have included: (1) an attempt to draw attention to the kinds of baseline data required for drawing conclusions regarding the changing face of the workplace; (2) an attempt to illustrate use of key DOL documents singly and in combination in searching for answers to some "changing workplace" questions; and (3) an attempt to correct some of today's common myths regarding education/work relationships predicted to exist by the Year 2000.

If these attempts have been successful, readers will recognize both: (a) how much more there is to learn; and (b) how easy it is to learn from DOL documents about this topic. If, as a result of studying the contents of this paper, career development professionals are motivated to acquire and use the four basic DOL documents referred to in the paper, this effort will have been well worthwhile.

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A Response to the Challenges of the Year 2000

Susan E. Katzman

> The National Alliance of Business is deeply concerned with the impending mismatch between our future workplace needs and the skills and capabilities of our future workforce. The Alliance recognizes that the education of our youth plays a paramount role in bridging this gap. We urge business people, educators, elected officials and concerned citizens to initiate and foster effective partnerships which have the capacity to significantly impact not only our future workforce, but our future economy and our quality of life.
>
> National Alliance of Business, *Business Week*, May 2, 1988

The National Alliance of Business is just one of a host of national organizations, foundations and corporate groups citing the concerns expressed above. What is alarming is the increasing intensity and frequency of the concerns expressed and the accompanying statistics. Consider the following:

- One out of every eight 17-year olds is functionally illiterate.
- One million youth drop out of school every year and in some urban schools the rate is over 50%.
- New York telephone recently tested 22,880 people in order to fill 2,000 entry level jobs that didn't require a high school diploma; some 84% of the applicants failed the examination.
- 82% of the new entrants into the labor force in the next 12 years will be women and minorities.

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- By 1990, more than 50% of all jobs will require education or technical training beyond high school.
- By 2000, an estimated 5 to 15 million manufacturing jobs will require different skills, while an equal number of service jobs will be obsolete.
- Employers already spend an estimated $210 billion annually on formal and informal training; remediation and lost productivity cost U.S. businesses $25 billion a year.
- Each year's dropouts cost America $240 billion in lost earnings and foregone taxes over their lifetimes.

While each of these statistics addresses a separate issue, they all are interrelated and impact collectively on the economic development and competitive status of the United States in the years to come. How do we, then, begin to turn this situation around and stem the tide? How do we marshal the support, the experiences and the people necessary to ensure a country filled with well-trained and enlightened citizens who are able to read, write, compute and think critically? The challenges are clearly multi-faceted. In the Foreword to the Hudson Institute's Workforce 2000 report (1987), former Assistant Secretary of Labor, Roger D. Semerand notes a peculiar paradox. He states that even though the great reduction in America's young labor force may endanger our competitive stance, it also offers more employment opportunities for disadvantaged youth.

This article will focus on one programmatic effort in St. Louis, Missouri—**career education.** Career education is viewed as all the experiences that help young people to make reasonable life decisions, to understand themselves and their potential and to develop their skills so they are better able to take advantage of the many paths that will come before them in life. Simply put, career education is the development of the total person. Changes in technology are creating new careers and eliminating established ones at a rapid rate, forcing young people to make mature choices at earlier ages—choices between dropping out and graduating; between planning ahead and living for today; between knowing oneself and fear of facing reality; between a promising future and no direction; between pride and humiliation; between success and failure.

Career education represented a response to a call for educational reform that was answered in 1971 by Dr. Sidney Marland, then United States Commissioner of Education. Following Dr. Marland, Dr. Kenneth B. Hoyt became the national director and remained so until 1983. Hoyt

emphasized that career education was for all students, preschool through grade 12, and that school would become more meaningful as young people saw correlations between school and other experiences in their lives. Active, experiential learning became a cornerstone of career education as school districts in the 1970s and early 80s around the country initiated strong working relationships among education, business and the community.

Active, experiential learning is not a new concept. Thomas Dewey considered it one of the keys to his educational philosophy. In *The Paideia Proposal: An Educational Manifesto,* Adler (1982) states that true learning is an **active**, rather than passive, process. Learning is a process of **discovering**, involving the student much more so than the teacher.

In *The Forgotten Half: Non-College Youth In America* (The William T. Grant Foundation, 1988) an entire chapter is devoted to bridging the gap for young people between school and work. The Commission states that "young lives are being damaged by our collective failure to help young people make a smoother transition from school to work" (p. 39). The recommendation includes the need for active learning with more diversity in how students are taught, where they are taught and by whom they are taught. In further support for active, experiential learning, the report states the following:

> Schools cannot expect all students to learn in the same way, and America cannot expect 100% of its young people to be able to complete 12 years of a rigorous academic program in traditional classroom settings. For the sake of all students, educators need to reach beyond the walls of their schools and classrooms to take advantage of the rich possibilities for learning available in their communities. Our recommendation, however, is not limited to at-risk students. Many bright students, too often bored, would also flourish with more opportunities for individual growth and added responsibility. For all students, schools need to build more effective bridges to the adult world of work, family, responsibility and civic participation. (p. 41)

What is career education St. Louis style and how is active, experiential learning implemented? The St. Louis Public Schools Career Education Program has been operational since the early 1970s. Currently, the program offers a smorgasbord of activities for preschool through grade 12 and involves some 900 area educators in the delivery of services to

50,000+ students. Involved community and business persons number well past 1,400 each year. Over the years, various program components have been singled out for recognition. For example, The Council of Great City Schools in 1980 declared it a model program for the country; the yearly eighth grade *Career Awareness Fair* was featured in a 1986 *Wall Street Journal* article and was recently used as a model for a similar event in Paris, France. The classroom curriculum modules in self-awareness, career awareness, career orientation and career preparation are in numerous school districts, as well as dropout prevention programs, around the country.

Experiential career education learning components embracing collaboration between education and business/community persons involve the following:

- **Traveling Career Panels** in which seventh graders learn the importance of the basic skills within the world of work and how these skills are applied by individuals on the job. A panel of two persons visits a seventh grade classroom, bringing tools and a classroom activity that typifies their job. A math panel, for example, might include a chef who brings a chili recipe for 20 people that needs to be converted into one serving 100 and a corporate budget director who brings ledger sheets and teaches the students to format a personal budget. The class follows up with career-related field experiences to view the panelists in their work environment.

- **College Planning Conferences** in which eighth graders spend the day on a college campus. This experience provides an awareness of college life and helps students to envision one of the directions their lives might take. For many young people who never dreamed that college was a possibility in their lives, they are given an incentive to enter high school, graduate and plan for the future. While on the campus, students tour, hear from admissions personnel and high school counselors and discuss college life with a panel of college students.

- **Career Awareness Fair** in which some 7,000 eighth graders have an exciting opportunity to watch career role models demonstrating their jobs. With the theme of "Preparing For The Year 2000," the Fair is a way for over 780 business persons and community members to reinforce how important it is to master the basic school subjects, remain motivated about learning, stay in

school and explore the diversified world of work. The 1989 Fair had building inspectors demonstrating blueprint reading; flight attendants who showed students how to prepare for a flight; chefs who used their utensils and measured for recipes; street sweepers who allowed students to work the controls in the vehicle; foresters who performed tree borings; comedy writers who discussed the use of humor; sheet metal workers who demonstrated their trade; food technologists who performed experiments; and radio broadcasters who performed "live-on-the air" shows. Students complete pre- and post-Fair activities and conduct career interviews while at the fair. In the 1986 *Wall Street Journal* article, the Fair was heralded as a unique collaborative event between education and business.

- **Career Pathfinders** in which ninth graders get an opportunity to sharpen their decision-making skills, goal setting and coping with choices and consequences. Consisting of six lessons, the program draws its strength from the expertise of business and community persons who team-teach with the classroom teacher. Students have a chance to explore their decision-making style in a non-threatening, yet challenging environment. The business persons provide valuable insights into personal and professional risk taking and survival strategies. The recognition that successful people once shared and mastered the same adolescent concerns that students are now experiencing gives young people hope for their own futures.

- **Career Prep Clubs** in which business and community persons again team-teach with the classroom teacher. Aimed at 10-12th graders, this 12-lesson program draws upon business persons to present job seeking and keeping skills. Topics include career planning, how to find job openings, applications (college, armed services and job), resumes, interviews, job attitudes and how to advance on the job. Every student is responsible for completing a personal job/college portfolio. Providing concrete examples of many of the issues raised in the lessons, the business persons are able to convey a wealth of practical suggestions and to motivate students.

- **Decision-Making Seminars** in which ninth graders learn individual and group decision-making techniques and how public and private sector personnel use social studies on the job.

Speakers from government and industry talk with the social studies classes and relate practical examples of how important community decisions are made and the cognitive skills used in the process.

- **Shadowing** in which a 10-12th grader investigates his/her career interests at a business site. This one-on-one personalized experience provides an exciting opportunity to observe firsthand in the work environment what a job entails. Usually designed as a three-hour experience, students are energized by the shadowing and are better able to ascertain how realistic their career choices are. It is not unusual for students to report to their class about their shadowing experience and what they learned. Shadowing sites can be as varied as corporate computer centers, veterinarian clinics, police departments, department stores and national weather service offices.

- **Men and Women of Tomorrow Plan Today** in which high school juniors are paired with professional business persons for the day in a conference setting outside of school. The adult role models and the students attend sessions together on self-esteem, goal setting, manhood and womanhood and communication skills. Each pair develops a contract, spends the day together and designs a follow-up shadowing activity.

- **Storytelling/Self-awareness for Fifth Graders** allows fifth graders to interact with a professional storyteller. He makes fables, myths and stories come alive while stressing positive self-concept and communication skills. Follow-up activities allow students to not only write their own stories and fables and interpret them, but also to analyze the positive and negative behaviors detailed in each experience. This activity fosters positive self-concept in a creative way.

- **Pre-employment Skills Work Program** in which juniors and seniors have an opportunity to work as well as attend school. Designed as an afterschool program, students work two hours a day, five days a week in the private sector and attend a Career Prep Club class every two weeks. Many of the young people are hired for full-time positions at the conclusion of the program. Funding is provided by the Jobs Training Partnership Act.

- **Business/School Mentoring** in which a business or community agency has a chance to pair with a school to effectively communicate and guide students over an extended period of time. This experience can be initiated by either side. Two recent examples include AT&T requesting a paired relationship with an elementary school in order to deliver career and motivational information and a middle school principal requesting a joint project with a college in order to stimulate his students into viewing college as a viable future goal.

- **Special Community/Business or School Initiated Projects** in which targeted needs are met. These often place the career education staff in a brokering position and can run the gamut from a special U.S. Department of Labor Women's Bureau Conference on sex equity and career choice to recom-mending student job or scholarship applicants to companies.

The programs and services listed above are also supplemented with classroom curriculum components for each grade level which include leader's manuals, student handbooks, spirit master sets and commercially-prepared materials and intensive training and staff development for educators and business persons who participate in the variety of programs.

The beauty of all of these endeavors is that they provide an avenue for education, business and the community to collaborate together. Because of this diversity, business and community persons can adapt their time and energy commitments to a particular program. There is literally "something for everyone." Career education becomes a vehicle for getting small and large companies involved with the schools, especially where there has been no previous participation.

The impending "mismatch" mentioned in the opening National Alliance of Business statement can be bridged with these collaborative efforts. Education needs to reach out and the business and community sectors need to respond. When the Conference Board recently asked 130 major firms to list their top concerns, education ranked first by a large margin. For many years, businesses donated monetary resources to the schools. Career education asks for something else; it asks for human resources—human resources to impact young people, to be positive career role models and to help students' transition from school to work.

The Hudson Institute's Workforce 2000 report (1987) notes that the days of high-wage, low-skill jobs of the last decade are a thing of the

past. Our new high-skill service economy will offer lucrative employment opportunities only to those who have the skills to meet their challenges.

Career education provides students with keys to unlock their futures. Today, those keys have never been more important and, perhaps, the mission of career education has never been more urgently needed. The future of our young people and our economy depends on building effective relationships among education, business and the community sectors. Career education provides an avenue for doing just that.

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Integrating Equity into the School

Lawrence M. DeRidder

Our nation's attention and tax money tend to be provided, in the name of "excellence," to those youth from the suburbs who do well in school and face a promising future. These students excel doing the conventional paper and pencil tasks. Our educational system tends to penalize youth who learn in other ways. Many of these students, already discouraged and unsure of themselves and their abilities, begin to flounder and are set adrift while those who fit into the prescribed system are rewarded. Graduation requirements have increased without examining what youth need. Traditional approaches are not working for the majority of our students. We have "excellence" for reasons we cannot define, for reasons we cannot defend.

"Nationally one of every four students does not stay in school until graduation; the figure is twice as bad in inner city high schools, and for specific groups it is often worse" (NEA, 1988, p. 1). Schools lose 700,000–1,000,000 youth each year and over 2,000,000 are considered to be at risk. What is happening to youth in our schools that is causing them to be at risk?

A major school-oriented deficiency is the lack of success in assisting **all** school youth to achieve competency in the basic skills of reading, mathematics, and writing. According to Berlin and Dunn (1988), "skills deficiencies are significant factors in such persistent and costly behavior as teenage parenting and dropping out of school, both of which contribute to dependency and poverty in future generations" (p. 65). Schools provide little help for the young person from a family damaged by poverty and social neglect (Blair, 1988).

According to research, tracking or ability grouping, used as an organizing procedure in many schools, essentially selects low income

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and/or minorities and students with little motivation for academics into low ability groups. Students in these groups are perceived as less able and tend to be given a diluted academic curriculum, the less effective teachers and the least flexibility of choice of what they might become. The students in turn respond to the teacher's lower expectations with poor morale and more failure (Northwest Regional Laboratory, 1988).

All students do not receive an equitable investment of time and energy to help them examine and explore available choices or financial aid. Career development opportunities, planning, orientation, and placement support for the non-college bound are significantly less available. Instead of less, they need more assistance to widen their opportunities and choices—and to keep them in school until graduation.

For many students, school is an alienating and frustrating experience. These students lack direction and often fail to see the relevance of classroom instruction to the limited options they foresee for themselves. They tend to be outsiders with little or no involvement in the school's clubs or activities. Their relationships with teachers and administrators tend to be limited. Instead, their peer group exerts a considerable influence and frequently emphasizes disengagement. As a group, the non-college bound appear to be seeking independence and security but lack both direction and confidence.

Our failure to invest money and time in at-risk youth costs far more in wasted lives, inadequately prepared workers and social programs that assist the unemployed or underemployed. For every dollar spent on early prevention and intervention, according to the 1987 report of the Committee for Economic Development, about five dollars is saved in the future costs of remedial education, welfare and crime, and the dropout cost in lost revenue to the school system, to the state and to the nation is enormous. The financial loss to the million dropouts in the class of 1981 alone is estimated at $228 billion in personal earnings over their lifetimes; the loss in taxes they would pay would be more than $68 billion. When the billions spent on unemployed or unproductive citizens, health care, welfare and crime control are added, we all lose (Kennedy, 1988).

Contributing Variables

Education is still the most potent avenue to escape from poverty and welfare but the escape is not possible without a solid foundation of basic

skills. All children including the disadvantaged can learn. Adequate basic skills almost ensures more completed years of school and more school graduates. "Children who fail to master basic skills are many times more likely as young adults to have a child out of wedlock, to be out of work, on welfare, or arrested from a crime" (William T. Grant Foundation, 1988a, p. 29). Children, however, learn best in different ways and according to their own developmental patterns, with some needing much more individual assistance or a different pace than others. A student's successful school achievement builds the critical self-esteem and self-confidence so necessary to meet the school's next learning challenge. The better the basic skills the higher the self-esteem which in turn increases the acceptance by peers, teachers and significant others.

At least half of America's children are disadvantaged in some way, through poverty, divorce, etc. Many of them must see some relevance in what is to be learned, learning that which is of use to them, what they want or where they expect to be going. Because our classrooms tend to emphasize the abstract, the symbolic and the theoretical in content and delivery, the tools, situations, and objects of the real world are not evident—and the learning becomes much less meaningful and useful. The relevance of what is to be learned determines student motivation—or alienation.

During pre-adolescence and early adolescence (middle school/junior high school) all children, at-risk or not-at-risk, appear to develop an image of what their niche in the adult world will be. This is a time of evaluation, decision-making, and commitment, they appear to primarily base their decisions upon what they have experienced in their home and community. Even though their ideas are likely to be distorted and partial, students act on these ideas even though they may not have been able to verbalize their chosen directions. Berryman (1987a) found that, by age 14, girls had committed themselves to family or to work, a decision which determined the educational choices and other commitments they expected to make as adults. How children interpret what their societal place is to be will set the stage for their future educational directions. However, if the students have already committed themselves to a non-academic work or family setting, their willingness to tolerate or make sense of a school-based experience which offers little more than academic skills depends on their individual differences, their peer group and what academic success or failure they have already experienced.

The National Governor's Association Task Force on Dropouts recommended "restructuring schools to facilitate effective teaching and

learning" and "early warning mechanisms to identify at-risk learners and develop effective responses to meet their needs" (NEA, 1988, p. 10). Traditional schools, by emphasizing their own in-school goals, may be producing the "at-risk" youth. At the ninth grade level, a critical grade, most kids have the high expectations of going to college but their in-school experience, typically towards the end of a semester or academic year, makes dropping out a reasonable alternative. Students drop out **because** of the school and the school's response to the student. Students who drop out leave school not because of lack of ability but because of lack of confidence in themselves. From the school's reaction to them, they perceive that their ability is limited.

The experience of Job Corps, JTPA, and the 70,001 Training and Employment Institute suggests that potential dropouts can learn appropriate work habits and can be motivated to achieve when the school system works with both youth and the community. The successful employment readiness program for those who have dropped out and are disconnected from society emphasizes remedial education in basic skills, motivational activities, employment training and follow-up (70,001 Training and Employment Institute, 1988). Most noteworthy, and a typical school deficiency, is the use of membership in an organization to tap personal motivation. By experiencing belonging, participation, cooperation and leadership on their own terms, they achieve recognition, life and leadership skills and, in addition, become involved in community service activities and social events.

Other than JTPA funds, our federal government currently offers no training assistance to high-risk students, a problem of under-investment in all of our nation's youth, despite evidence that these training programs justify their cost and that targeting the neediest has the clearest payoff (Blair, 1988). As Blair concluded, at least 15% to 30% of students who enter high school do not graduate; about half of those graduating do not attend college; of those attending college about three-fifths eventually graduate, a quarter of the high school graduates. Consequently, he asserted that the bulk of our post-high school funds are available only to a minority since the majority of youth never finish college; he suggested instead that student aid also be accessible to dropouts for short cycle training.

Proposed Solutions

The Council of Chief State School Officers in 1987 unanimously made a commitment that virtually all students would graduate by the year 2000. To achieve this ideal goal, the current school patterns of functioning will need to be re-examined and changed. But change in and of itself creates stress—and is best accomplished, if the change is to be fast, by mandate or by the infusion of funds. The preferable alternative is, after the individual school has studied the needs of its own students and has identified some goals, to move toward achieving them gradually to achieve specific improvements. Educational reform which provides more school programs designed to prevent failure before it occurs is crucial. The emphasis must be on enlarging the learning opportunities for the non-college bound, the at-risk students, the half or more of high school students who go directly from high school to work and especially the blacks, the Hispanics and the poor and those who attend our inner-city schools. Involved is spending as much time and attention on this group as those going to college and, in addition, providing curricula which are as relevant to them as the academics for the college-bound. If at-risk youth are to be served, schools must intervene early, create a positive school climate, raise student self-expectations and provide strong and caring teachers (Kennedy, 1988).

Any school's policy which restricts student passage from one grade to another needs to be re-examined and preferably dropped. Instead, learning will be facilitated and failure reduced by eliminating required time lines for learning success, letting students progress through the basics according to ther own developmental legacy (but remaining with their age group at least much of the time), and by keeping accurate records of the skills attained and the next goals to be achieved with the help of the next teacher.

Self-Esteem

Success creates the likelihood of more success and greater willingness to move into the unknown with confidence. This self-confidence, feelings of self-worth or lack of it, significantly impact the relationship each

student has with learning, peers, and family. Since the school essentially controls the opportunity to achieve in-school success, pacing student learning goals to what the student is ready to grasp is critical. The intent is to promote a sense of self-efficacy, the feeling of being in the driver's seat and of being able to change one's own behavior to reach identified goals.

Mentoring more recently has been suggested as a very useful intervention approach, especially for the non-college bound and at-risk students. A mentor is an older person, from the staff or community, who preferably has some daily contact over a long time with a student around a meaningful activity of concern to the student. Retirees provide an immediate resource using the big brother/big sister model, the mentor provides the identified student with someone who cares and is there to listen and to be a friend and guide. This can help build a sense of self-worth in the student.

The school reform most needed to encourage student learning and retention is curricular reform which emphasizes the integration of academic concepts with real-world problems and job-related tasks, using flexible teaching methods. The school curriculum needs to be re-examined in many schools to provide a mixture of abstract (conceptual) and experiential (hands on) learning opportunities and to bring real world problems into the classroom to solve problems. Student's skills and talents, no matter how or where they are acquired, should be accepted and encouraged. Most students prefer active learning—a "hands-on" "walk-through" opportunity to experience what is to be learned along with the verbal explanation. Learning is further enhanced when what is to be learned is work-related and, preferably, is a problem that they might meet in a real life situation. According to Berryman (1987b) "Learning activities should be presented as real life problems: full of ambiguity; bound to specific circumstances and constraints; dependent on formal knowledge and creative figuring-out; and with important consequences" (p. 8). Learning problem-solving using anything other than the real life situations is much less successful (Scribner, 1985) and limits the transfer of learned knowledge and skills to daily life.

All instruction, therefore, should emphasize those learning processes and values which sustain life and work skills: cooperation, team problem-solving, communication, decision-making, commitment, and confidence in abilities sufficient to express one's own ideas and approaches. A teaching approach that requires thinking skills rather than

memory prepares students more adequately for the work-a-day world. The basic concepts and skills would continue to undergird all learning activities in an increasingly sophisticated form, hopefully in a meaningful context.

The recent report *Youth and America's Future* (William T. Grant Foundation, 1988b) concluded that "Learning takes place when learners regard what one needs to know as relevant in their lives; when they feel their teachers...are committed to the student's success, when the institutional environment allows for differences in learning methods and styles and is in harmony with the diverse needs and interests of the learner" (p. 128). In order to provide a reasonable opportunity for all of the school's youth to learn, they recommended a mixture of experiential and abstract learning through expanding the use of cooperative education, work-study, apprenticeships, internships, community volunteer service, youth-operated enterprises, mentoring, and on-the-job training with the focus not only on what is taught and when but how to make it relevant to the work place. From their extensive research, they asserted "Learning by hands-on participation—by trying, making errors and gradually narrowing the margin between failure and success—should be the heart of the education we offer to the forgotten half" (1989, p. 283). We learn by trying; making errors is the heart of education and should not be punished.

Goodlad (1984), as a result of his research on school effectiveness, concluded that "vocational education, including guided work experience, is an essential...part of general education...vocational education is for all students, not an alternative to academic studies for the less academically oriented" (p. 147–148). Vocational education, as currently available in most schools, appears to provide the best teaching model, a hands-on performance-oriented approach. Vocational programs typically include low teacher-student ratio; focus on the whole student, emphasis on achieving the basic skills, parental involvement, work experience, problem-solving skill development, counseling and supportive services, career exploration, vocational skill training, flexible, demanding, and responsive staff, teaching through modeling, practice of new skills, and immediate feedback (Weber, 1988). In vocational education, instructional procedures are more student-centered and use individual and small group activities which require interpersonal communication to attain the reachable goals. If the academic teachers collaborate with the vocational program in achieving the desired basic skills, the student's problem-solving would be enhanced. Oates (1988) recommended "infusing the

curriculum of vocational classes with academic concepts and that of academic classes with real-life, hands-on learning experiences" (p. 46). Monaco and Parr (1988) concur and suggest an infusion of a vocational focus into all academic subject areas, together with special mentors from the business world, an extensive school cooperative education program with business and industry, and vocational education.

Learning

Because grouping by learning levels tends to reduce the learning expectation of the lower track, the track system does not provide learning equity and should be discontinued as a school practice (Northwest Regional Laboratory, 1988; Oates, 1988). Through tracking, the rich get richer and the poor get poorer. Since some grouping facilitates the learning goals, Slavin (1987) recommended the following three groupings as most effective:

1. Grouping students with similar competence across grade levels for instruction in reading and again in mathematics (the Joplin plan).
2. Within each subject area, forming 3–4 groups of similar ability for individualized assignments.
3. Developing mixed ability groups in which students work cooperatively and are evaluated on the achievement of the entire group.

All three plans are flexible and the level of instruction is adapted to the needs of each group. Slavin recommended that all students be in mixed ability classes most of the day.

Currently our schools are organized to develop and evaluate the competence of the individual rather than the person's performance in the group. Students usually work alone, silently. Since life out-of-school emphasizes team performance, small groups of mixed abilities in each class could be formed for cooperative study, assigned tasks, and report their accomplishments as a team. These tasks would encourage teamwork, communication, mutual assistance, development of individual interests, responsibility and leadership. Additionally, each team member, in order to develop leadership skills, might each be identified, in rotation, to be the teacher's assistant for the day or week. Students grouped for task accomplishment usually find ways to incorporate the socially unpopular youth who lacks skills in responding positively to others.

They are helped to make friends, to cooperate and to learn more appropriate communication skills. By using direct observation, rating scales, teacher interviews, sociometrics, etc., schools can systematically identify children whose social, academic, or emotional skills are lacking.

Another characteristic of a school which emphasizes success is evident effort to get students involved in activities with others who have similar interests. A feeling of belonging is a critical personal need that the majority of students in most schools do not attain. Because only the middle to upper socioeconomic groups belong to anything in too many schools, an activity "needs" assessment, to determine the array of activities the students would like, together with efforts to get like-minded students to meet for planning, would greatly reduce student alienation and improve attendance. An activity period during the day could permit most groups to meet regularly.

The school has the responsibility to find a way to assist each child to be successful and to eventually graduate. Therefore, suspensions should only be the in-school type, accompanied by assistance to these students from teachers and the support staff. The supervisors of in-school suspension and alternative schools, and teachers in general, will need expanded learning opportunities and specialized skills in order to provide comprehensive and individualized programs. These could perhaps be achieved through in-service activities and workshops in mentoring and advocacy, in counseling, and in referral to school and community resources. Students whose social, emotional, and academic needs are beyond the ability of the school staff to manage successfully in the classroom may need to have access to non-punitive alternative learning opportunities. An alternative school where the attention and assistance the student needs should be available. If necessary, some students might remain in this setting until graduation but most would be re-integrated into the regular classroom as appropriate.

Increasingly society is aware that non-college-bound youth need special learning opportunities while in school, especially to learn about the world of work. The earlier the investment in this half of the population, the greater the return. In order to achieve the goal of a virtually universal high school graduation, the William T. Grant Foundation report (1988b) asserted that "A high school diploma....is now the minimum requirement for entry into today's workforce" (p. 125) and that this "education and training pay(s) off handsomely for both the individual and the society" (p. 127) by helping youth become productive and economically self-sufficient adults. In addition to the

education and training, Prediger (1988) recommended assisting students much more in their career planning, specifically by helping them differentiate between occupational groups using the bipolar dimensions of data/ideas and people/things, by organizing their choices into job families and by arranging them on a world-of-work map for career exploration.

Most young people, in moving from school to a career, do not know where to step next and need help to reach beyond the school walls to tap into new learning possibilities. Of all school youth, the potential dropouts are the least career mature and need this assistance the most. Work is the backbone of an individual's life. In order to break down the barriers between education and the world of work, school-to-work programs could include job opportunities identified by the career information center, the basic skills and abilities learned through vocational education service to the community, and monitored work experience. The transition from school to work is a gradual and extended process: first a casual neighborhood job, next a part-time job in a store, fast-food shop and/or a summer job and then, after graduation, a real first job, which depends on level of schooling completed (not academic grades in school), age, and the family's network of connections. Early work experience, even in low paying repetitive jobs, can assist in developing self-discipline, motivation and good work habits. "The half of our youth who do not go on to college have a right to be able to compete for jobs that are adequate in number, that offer reasonable wage levels, that provide health insurance and other essential benefits, that offer career advancement in return for diligence and competence, and that provide continuing educational opportunities and retraining benefits" (William T. Grant Foundation, 1988a, p. 5). Imbedded in this group are those that our schools have failed the most, the school's dropouts or pushouts.

Summary

Our schools, their curricula and guidance programs are currently oriented toward serving college-bound youth. Additionally, as a result of the "excellence" movement and the consequent imposition of "higher standards," the disadvantaged students have found themselves falling even further behind. In order to provide equity, classroom learning opportunities comparable to what is provided the college-bound must be available for those students who are planning to join the work force after

graduation. We need to consider some strategies: early intervention; creation of a positive school climate; setting high expectations; selecting and developing strong teachers; providing a broad range of relevant instructional programs which include problem-solving techniques and interpersonal life management skills; and initiating collaborative efforts with parents, community agencies, business and industry. The result will likely widen their available career opportunities and keep more students in school until graduation. These opportunities include the use of a variety of applied, experiential teaching methods and career planning appropriate to the students interests and potential, orientation, job-finding and placement support. If we are to face the human resource challenges of the next decade, we must realign our training priorities to include all of the students the school is there to serve.

Some Suggestions for Possible Implementation of Appropriate Changes

State Departments of Education

1. Provide coordinated services: family planning, prenatal health care, family counseling, nutritional services, child care, early childhood education, and health education.
2. Encourage each major attendance center to make its facilities available in the evening and weekends throughout the year. Every public school would be the public's lighted school house for lifelong learning: open libraries, recreational facilities, shops, etc.

Principals

1. Develop a school-based improvement team of five to eight members with representatives from different departments and grade levels, a custodian and cafeteria worker, one counselor and either a teacher or administrator as coordinator to initiate appropriate school-wide changes over time: such as drop-out prevention, curricular relevance, mentoring, mediation procedures, etc. Make most of the decisions for the benefit of the students; spread authority for decision-making among both staff members and students.
2. Design the school's curriculum and instructional methods to reach, interest, and challenge as many students as possible.
3. Since the most effective intervention is caring, adopt a school policy of ***caring + bonding = retention*** as a procedure for

reducing dropouts. Drop-out reduction must be a school-wide project shared by all staff, parents, and community which focuses on the needs of students as they perceive their world. Only teachers who are willing to participate should be involved. The process might include identification of potential dropouts, examining the available retention strategies and their result (no one strategy alone works), development of goals and timetables, use of professional development and possible activities or initiatives, and subsequent evaluation of retention success. Permit interrupted learning, if necessary, through open exit and open entry (or dropping back).

4. Effective practices that facilitate learning include a clearly defined and relevant curriculum, focused classroom instruction, consistent and reasonable discipline and close monitoring of student performance, including attendance.
5. If the school system does not have the computer capability, request a telephone computer which will continue to call the homes of all non-attendees until someone answers. This approach is both cost effective and markedly improves attendance.
6. Gradually, or all at once, drop the "tracking" or "leveling" system in favor of heterogenous or random grouping.
7. At all school levels emphasize the building of self-esteem, personal and leadership development, volunteer service and job shadowing.
8. Develop a mediation process to reduce fighting and to reduce the emphasis on discipline and on the use of school suspension as a method of control. Emphasize positive and preventive practices rather than punitive ones.
9. Permit students to transfer from teacher to teacher. All teachers do not communicate with all students; students deserve teachers who care and who communicate to them well.
10. Find a room, preferably connected to the library, to develop a career resource center to provide your students information on career options, clusters and ladders, information on post-secondary training opportunities and possible funding.
11. Encourage teachers to provide high but reasonable expectations and increased responsibility for each student.
12. Provide employment programs, job training, and opportunities to develop life skills.

13. Require all students to complete a specific amount of community service before graduation, giving them school credit toward graduation for participation.
14. Encourage the use of mentors (including out-of-school resources) especially for each at-risk student.

School Counselors

1. Serve as a consultant to all teachers emphasizing the non-college bound, the relevance of course content and peer helping groups.
2. Develop an early identification/early warning procedure for locating potential dropouts.
3. Attempt to improve each student's self-esteem by reinforcing all evidence of positive behaviors and each learning success.
4. Initiate workshops and in-service opportunities to assist teachers and parents to examine different methods for building self-esteem, personal and leadership development, volunteer services and job shadowing.
5. Assist teachers in sequencing age appropriate career development activities into all subject areas, grades K–12.
6. Use small counseling groups to assist all students to examine career options, beginning at least by the ninth grade with a simple interest inventory to stimulate exploration.
7. Develop a career resource center to provide information on career options, clusters and ladders, information on post-secondary training opportunities and possible funding.
8. Conduct job readiness and job search workshops for all students. (Half of the college-bound will not complete their degree.)
9. Introduce study skill development for learning efficiency to all students.
10. Provide all students employability skills: finding, getting, keeping, and changing jobs.
11. With the principal, develop a mediation procedure, perhaps student run, to reduce emphasis on discipline, to reduce fighting and to reduce suspensions.
12. Establish a buddy system so that all students have a buddy at the time of entrance into a new school setting.

Teachers

1. Reinforce all appropriate behaviors especially in the non-college bound (catch the student doing something good).

2. Emphasize the building of self-esteem, personal and leadership development, volunteer service and job shadowing.
3. Emphasize remediation of basic skills where needed in every class.
4. Provide study skill and learning efficiency development in every class or course.
5. Demonstrate verbal and non-verbal caring for each student—no losers! The teacher-student relationship is critical: the amount of teacher help, the extent of encouragement and the feeling of being understood.
6. Use at-risk students as peer tutors for students in lower grades.
7. Volunteer as a mentor (big brother/big sister approach) to provide daily contact with one at-risk student.
8. Increasingly use small in-class groups to achieve tasks to be accomplished by the group, emphasizing cooperation and communication.
9. Relate curriculum to real-life situations.

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The Administrator and Career Development Programs

Niel A. Edmunds

Today, educational leadership is thought of as effective leadership in planning, organizing, and implementing programs that incorporate good learning and good teaching. Administration is largely a matter of working with people, not dealing with things. People, particularly students and teachers, constitute our most important resource. Without them, programs would be lifeless, laboratories idle, and buildings empty. Schools are established and organized to be effective which means the children must be properly taught so that they derive maximum benefit from sound educational experiences.

Schools today exist in a fast-changing environment. Issues quickly rise and fall in significance. New technology rapidly alters the demands on the system and also offers new opportunities for student clientele. Perhaps from their inclusion in the 1914 cardinal principles of education, career development programs have emerged to respond to the challenge of providing education with meaningful goals deemed appropriate for junior and senior high school students.

The administrator occupies a strategic role that bridges the gap between school policy and program. This individual is in the position to influence the community, school staff, students, other administrators, and the governing board. Through this, the administrator influences the amount of success a career development program can attain by the amount of support directed to the program.

The administrator is held responsible for all phases of the program and must attempt to achieve a balanced program that will meet both the career development needs of the students and the employee needs of the community. Restated, this means that planning for career development programs must be sound **educationally** as well as **vocationally.** The

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career education administrator must be more than a subject area specialist; he/she also must be an education leader who can command the respect of all professionals with whom they come in contact.

The Administrator

Necessarily, certain characteristics must be possessed by the administrator to be successful in the supervision of career development programs. First of all, one must maintain an organization so that formal education can be carried on. To do so requires one to be a manager and engage in regular managerial activities. Secondly, the administrator must be able to conceptualize the present and future needs of programs. This requires looking outside the organization and analyzing the significance of social and economic change and their impact upon local education policy. Thirdly, the administrator must deal closely and in-depth with the unique activities of the organization, its curriculum and instruction.

The personal characteristics of leadership, which the administrator clearly must possess, are: (1) the setting of a positive example; (2) the ability to separate personal from professional beliefs; (3) developing positive attitudes in others; (4) being able to give and take constructive criticism; (5) never overtly rejecting any idea just because it seems impossible; (6) not allowing the seeming lack of resources to block a constructive idea; and (7) the ability to accept a creative proposal even though he/she did not think of it first.

The central role of administrators lies in their responsibility as professional educational leaders, to encourage good teaching and, above all, good learning. This competence is not only achieved by securing the knowledge of the nature, or the climate, and the essential conditions necessary for quality learning, but in a large part is based on the development of proper personal relationships with pupils, teachers, parents and all persons involved. These human relations are more complex than they appear on the surface. They require a high degree of ability in getting along with people.

Program Development

The career development administrator should be made responsible to the chief school officer for the character and the quality of the program. It

should be this person's responsibility to provide the caliber of leadership for the teachers and resource persons involved in the program. This will require the ability to effectively recognize, discover, develop, and coordinate the various qualities, competencies, potentials, and efforts of the career development staff.

The role as the instructional program leader will necessitate that the administrator function as an effective intermediary between the top administrator and school board and the professional and support staff. Programs should be planned upon the basis of demonstrated need. Public support for a new and growing program depends upon the ability of the administrator to identify, describe and communicate needed areas of service. Usually this requires documentation of evidence to support such needs. Because the public is less apt to recognize the need for career development programs, given the tradition of the school, the administrator has a professional obligation to keep the public informed and make recommendations for change and modernization of programs.

A major task is that of assuming the responsibility as the educational spokesperson for the career development program in both the school and the community. The administrator is called upon almost daily to confer with individuals, groups, and organizations, often with different or opposing points of view, about issues and problems in education in general and with career development programming. Complicating this seemingly simple responsibility is the need for the administrator to deal, not only with one public, but **many** publics.

The administrator seems destined to play an essential role in deciding the nature and content of the curriculum, resources necessary to facilitate teaching, and in evaluating the effectiveness of the instructional process. Those involved in the leadership of the planning process must be able to project plans of various types—short- and long-range, safe and daring, and/or planned or unanticipated. The process encompasses the identification and development of course offerings, and the establishment of policies and procedures that will meet the current needs of students and employees for career development. At the same time, administrators are required to assess trends with sufficient clarity to anticipate and meet long-range goals and needs. This will require the individual administrator to be knowledgeable of the economic, social, and political processes of the community. Flexibility and open-mindedness will be characteristics required so that the focus will not only be on short-term or immediate considerations at the expense of long-range prospects and possibilities for systematic program development.

Throughout the planning process, the administrator cannot rely solely upon his/her experience and thinking. For others to play an effective role in program-planning activities, they must be involved in the process from the start. The planning of a career development program is not the responsibility of the teachers or staff alone, nor just that of the administrator. All staff, professional and support alike, must be involved. So also must be the community and interested others, such as advisory council members. It is essential that **early** in the planning process all those who will later be affected by the plan should be enlisted as **full** participants.

Because career development administrators cannot provide superior expertise on all aspects of curriculum development, the effective leader uses the expertise and leadership resources of the staff. Today is an opportune time for career development administrators to exercise leadership in curriculum development.

Administrators of career development programs who set the agenda of excellence will be setting the stage for dialogue, debate and political conflict. The outcome will depend partly on local conditions and how they do it. In effective programs, the planning is student-specific and builds upon a baseline of instructional and guidance approaches.

Fiscal Support

Undoubtedly, one of the prime functions of the career development administrator will be to secure the adequate supplies, materials and facilities, and staff necessary for good teaching and learning. Although the prime responsibility for in-depth budget planning will most likely be vested with a fiscal manager or supervisor, the career development administrator can and should have input into the annual process of developing the program area's financial proposals and appropriations.

During the planning phase, the career development administrator employs the essential knowledge of the special sources of revenue which are available from federal, state, and local agencies. He or she also needs to interpret local policies that will satisfy state requirements regarding purchase and reimbursement procedures. This will ensure that purchases are proper and within the legal bounds of the school district.

Given the pressures of the public's demands for financial accountability, the career development administrator cannot assume a position that the schools will be operated and maintained at the present level of funding forever or without question. After all, they are institutions

designed to operate on public resources and they are designed to reflect the changing values of the public. This, then, suggests that the administrator must devote a substantial amount of time to the review of socio-economic demographics, developing technology, educational innovations, and other influences upon the career development curriculum.

Other tasks essential to this element of program support include: (a) knowing the requirements and procedures for gaining approval and financial support for career development programs; (b) identification of potential loans, gifts, grants, funds or equipment available from private industry and business sources; (c) determination of capital outlays for major purchase and long-range program requirements; and (d) obtaining adequate instructional material and support for classroom activities.

Functions closely related to the resource process that the career development administrator will be responsible for are: (a) development and maintenance of inventory lists; (b) preparation and keeping of thorough financial records; (c) supervision of maintenance, repair, and replacement of laboratories and equipment; and (d) planning for additional materials equipment and facilities as technologies and enrollments change. This last function is increasingly important in as much as the education value of the instruction is greatly enhanced if this is made possible.

The administrator must work closely with the instructional team in defining specific financial needs directly related to instruction. These needs must be based both on current operation and projection and on the development of both short- and long-term projection for the career development program.

Home and Community Outreach

Career development programs are not merely "additional" offerings of the school system. Such programs always should be involved in the context of all education, and involvement of the total community. Labor, management, civic leaders, public agencies and lay citizens must be actively involved in the planning, development, operation and evaluation of career development education for youth. If the full promise and potential of career development programming are to be realized, it must be rooted in the schools and fed, enriched, enhanced, and expanded by and into the community served.

Numerous strategies can be utilized to reach out into the home and the community. Information can be provided to the total community if continuous and effective use is made of all regional media (newspapers, radio, and television), professional and trade journals, newsletters, and other publications. Special efforts must be made to utilize any and all services made available to the public through community and civic organizations. A brief and readable periodic report detailing the activities and educational services—including successes and limitations—should be prepared and distributed throughout the district served by the school. The values derived through such linkage for the program are immeasurable.

There are other methods that can be used to garner home and community involvement. Industry and business can identify persons from the surrounding area that have special competencies or attributes who would be willing to be involved in the instructional program as resource people, especially when such interaction has the potential for extending or enhancing the knowledge and career development of the students. Through youth club activities parents and citizens can become active participants in the career development activities and thus become more aware of potential for such school programming. In dealing with the community, it is often found that, when within the stated objectives of the school system, requests for instructional services and participation are met promptly and effectively.

Certainly not to be overlooked is the operation of an organized, active general advisory committee which is representative of the major employment, social, economic, and civic elements of the community. This component can be further extended by the development of a plan that identifies and carries out procedures for maintaining close working relationships with public employment agencies.

Throughout history, successful programs are those that have succeeded in enlisting the services and assistance of community people and organizations. It is imperative the career development administrator, faculty, and staff continue to build upon this practice which will promote success in developing community involvement.

Cooperative Work Experiences for Staff and Students

The basic and most essential element in any career development program will be a well-prepared instructor. This individual should be both

knowledgeable and competent in the career awareness arena, respected by his/her peers, and a provider of service in the community. Furthermore, he/she should be dedicated to the principles of comprehensive education for young people about to enter into the world. Just as vocational teachers have a need for continuing contacts with their occupational world in the field they teach, the career development teacher must also have experiences throughout the community in order to maintain credibility and competence. Teachers should be provided the opportunity to update their skills and knowledge and to renew their appreciation of what really happens in the work environment. Being current, in terms of both technical skills and knowledge, is an absolute must in today's educational scheme.

The administrator of the career development program is the essential link with respect to communicating the various needs of inservice opportunities for the teaching staff throughout the community. The administrator must apprise both the community and instructional staff of what is needed and acceptable in terms of faculty improvement and enhancement.

The administrator must encourage and assist staff in upgrading their skills and knowledge. This can be accomplished by participating in inservice activities which may be credit or non-credit workshops, seminars (local or regional), summer arrangements with business or industry, institutes provided by business and industry, clinics, and visitations to other schools or to business and industry. These activities are more successful when planned cooperatively with the faculty. Nevertheless, the administrator must exercise the initiative and leadership to see that it is carried out.

A spin-off effect occurs when the administrator and teacher both become more involved with the local career market. Certainly this creates the potential for students to be placed in the observation mode and offered part-time work experience opportunities. While much career development can be handled within the confines of the school, actual on-site career development often better develops the effective characteristics so important to success. Career development must be concerned with both what is learned about meaningful work and also with the attitudes toward work. Career development programming should seek to make career exploration as meaningful and satisfying as possible. Means should be developed to assist students in identifying realistic choices and to assist in the transition from school to work efficiently and effectively through career awareness and exploration activities. Thus, it is necessary

to provide experiences for the students, and whenever possible, to assist them in this transition stage.

The administrators occupy a support role in this phase of the program. Being a link to the community, they can demonstrate strong support and enthusiasm by communicating the value of the activities described above to others in education as well as to parents. This can further be reinforced by scheduling provisions and other resources for both students and the staff necessary to supervise the program. This will be a shared responsibility of the administrator, staff, and counseling personnel.

In summary, the career development program administrator plays a key role in the development and on-going improvement of the instructional program. Basically, the administration activities involve creating relationships and understandings that will enable the program to function effectively and to improve instruction of all persons concerned. The environment in which this individual performs is multi-faceted. The administrator must establish and maintain positive relationships with teachers, lay groups, students, and others concerned with education.

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Delivering Career Development Outcomes Through Vocational Education

Harry N. Drier

> *I know no safe depository of the ultimate powers of the society, but the people themselves; and if we think them not enlightened enough to exercise their control with a wholesome discretion, the remedy is not to take it from them, but to inform their discretion.*
>
> *–Thomas Jefferson*

Thomas Jefferson's philosophy of education could still serve as a cornerstone for our nation's common beliefs concerning contemporary education for the 21st century (The National Commission on Excellence in Education, 1983). Career development, especially when delivered in partnership with vocational education, has become a key ingredient in the United States' rediscovery of education serving as a major instrument to develop achieving students, satisfied citizens and a productive work force. Since 1983, all or most of the national and state commission educational reform reports have argued that enhanced worker productivity is not possible without educational excellence.

What is it that makes career development basic skills (outcomes) so important for educational reform and an improved productive workforce? First let us examine what is suggested as the critical learner outcome of a guidance program. While there are numerous ways of conceptualizing guidance program outcomes, the following is an illustration of a current project by the National Occupational Information Coordinating Committee (NOICC) (1988) entitled "The National Career Counseling and Development Guidelines." They cluster outcomes in the

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domains of personal/social, education, and careers. Across these three domains they call for the following 12 broad competencies on the part of all youth as an outcome of their guidance program exposure.

Competency 1. Understanding of the influence of a positive self-concept on career development.

Competency 2. Interpersonal and social skills required for positive interaction with others.

Competency 3. Understanding of the interrelationships of emotional and physical development and career decision-making.

Competency 4. Understanding of the relationship between educational achievement and career planning, training and placement.

Competency 5. Positive attitudes toward work and learning.

Competency 6. Skills for locating, evaluating and interpreting information about career opportunities.

Competency 7. Skills for preparing, locating, obtaining, maintaining and advancing in a job.

Competency 8. Understanding of how societal needs and functions influence the nature and structure of work.

Competency 9. Skills in making decisions and choosing alternatives in planning for and pursuing educational and career goals.

Competency 10. Understanding of the interrelationship of life roles and careers.

Competency 11. Understanding of the continuous changes in male/female roles and how they relate to career decisions.

Competency 12. Skills in career exploration and planning.

As with other normal aspects of human growth, such career development competency development is not totally dependent upon external forces or programs but it reflects a personal growth pattern that in general is unique to the individual. However, for the integration of career development in all of education and especially vocational education, certain common patterns of growth, coupled with individual variations, offer generalizations about usual developmental patterns and career

sequences that need to be considered. The following are some basic principles academic and vocational educators need to consider as they infuse career development content and activities into educational renewal plans (excerpts taken from the NVGA-AVA Position Paper, 1973).

1. Career development cannot be inserted artificially at the convenience of educational scheduling. One develops his or her career over a lifetime which demands systematic exposure to and developmental task mastering at each stage of their career maturity. Compressing or forcing guidance interventions does not shorten this maturational process.
2. One's development is influenced by both heredity and environment. Psychological, sociological, educational, political, economic, and physical factors all affect differently the career development plans of the individual. We must then ensure that appropriate intervention strategies, focusing upon these factors, be systematically made available throughout the total education process.
3. Career maturity, like learning, is ongoing. For best effects, guidance program activities need to be present in and influence all academic avocational and vocational experiences. Although the young begin career formulation and values development before their formal schooling begins, it is still important that career development be an early and ongoing planned part of the total educational exposure. Such guidance interventions build on the knowledge that certain aspects of career maturity are dominant at various periods, and thus should be emphasized.
4. Career development involves a progressive differentiation and integration of the individual's self-perception and perceived world including work and workers. This directs us to design guidance activities that are developmental, and integrated into the total educational fabric, rather than merely to provide remedial assistance.
5. Individual differences in career development are predictable and observable, thus vocational education and guidance must especially provide positive assistance for atypical growth and needs.
6. The lack of developmental career guidance and career development exposure can retard optimal growth that will later demand special assistance or suffer long-term career maturity effects.

How Can Career Development Outcomes Be Enhanced by Vocational Education Participation

Vocational-technical education's role is vital in helping youth in their transition from school to work and is a prevailing opinion expressed by both public officials and private citizens. For example, in a recent survey of the public's attitude toward the nation's schools (Gallup, 1984), 84% of the respondents felt that vocational courses (outranked only by English and mathematics) should be required for students who do not plan to go to college, and 37% felt that some vocational education should be required even for students who plan to attend college. Well over 75% of the nation's high school students enroll in at least one vocational course during their high school careers (Campbell, Orth, & Seitz, 1981).

What this means then is that vocational education is and can continue to be a major delivery system of career development outcomes for most students. This is reinforced by the recent report, *Dynamics of Secondary Programs Assisted Under the Carl D. Perkins Act* (Weber & Puleo, 1988), which states, "Overall, it appears that the role of the comprehensive school is becoming more focused on career exploration goals (though perhaps not by design) and the area vocational technical specialty schools are becoming more focused on job-specific skill training (p. 27)."

More specific to the topic are findings that demonstrate clearly that participation in vocational education enhances student career development outcomes.

Social Payoff

- Former vocational students are 6.5% more productive three to 36 months after being hired than those in the same job without relevant vocational education.
- Former vocational students require about 20% less formal on-the-job training and 10% less informal training than those in the same job without relevant vocational education.
- Former vocational students increase the firm's output and reduce its training cost considerably more than the additional wages paid.
- Former vocational students are even more productive and require even less training if that training was obtained at a two-year college or vocational training institute (Bishop, 1985).

Productivity

- Workers with relevant vocational training were more productive after two weeks on the job.
- Workers with relevant vocational experience were significantly more productive after two years on the job according to predictions by the employers (Suk & Bishop, 1985).

Academic Participation

- There is only a very slight tendency for students who take many vocational courses to take fewer courses in academic subjects such as math, English, science, social studies, and foreign languages.
- Females taking three years of business office courses without reducing their academic course load increased their English gain by .2 GE (grades equivalent) and their civics gain by .3 GE.
- Males taking three years of trade and technical courses without reducing their academic course load increased their math gain by .2 GE (Suk & Bishop, 1985).

Employment and Wages

- Former vocational students were 23% more likely to be employed in the 18 months following graduation.
- Former vocational students obtained wage rates that were 8% higher during this period.
- Former vocational students earned 47% more over the course of the full calendar year following graduation (Bishop, 1985).

Work Experience

- Has no effect on how many days per year students are absent from school.
- Has no effect on tardiness to school.
- Has no effect on the number of extracurricular activities in which students participate.
- Has no effect on actual grade point average.
- Has no effect on student's academic self-image (Hollenbeck & Smith, 1985).

School Retention

- Vocational students who participate in career education are more likely to complete school.
- The more vocational education classes students take the less likely they are to drop out of school.
- Dropouts earned significantly fewer vocational credits than students in comparison groups.
- Significantly fewer dropouts, than comparison students, had a vocational specialty plan (Mertens, Seitz, & Cox, 1982).

These are but a few examples of the close connection between the achievements made by youths concerning career development outcomes and their participation in vocational education.

Evidence of Career Guidance Effects

During the past ten years, the United States has clearly demonstrated that exposure to systematically planned, accessible, and professionally delivered vocational guidance results in impressive career maturity and resolves many youth's and adult's vocational training and work related needs.

In an attempt to summarize what is now known, the effects and influence of vocational guidance study data (Campbell, Connel, Boyle, & Bhaerman, 1983) will be clustered into five broad categories.

- **Improved school involvement and performance** (41 empirical studies). The majority of the studies reported gains in student career development outcomes. The gains were attributed primarily to interventions involving individualized student career development learning experiences such as experience-based career education, special guidance classroom activities, career exploration, and counseling.
- **Personal and interpersonal work skills** (31 empirical studies). Nineteen studies featured self-awareness, five focused on interpersonal and life skills, and six dealt with work values. The overwhelming majority of studies (26 out of a total of 30) in this outcome category reported positive effects. In summary, the various interventions utilized—particularly employer-based

career education, career education, and career and vocational exploration—led to favorable results.

- **Preparation for careers** (14 empirical studies). Of the 14 studies, 12 demonstrated positive gains in career preparation. The gains were attributed to four types of interventions: (1) counseling, (2) classroom (general and vocational) guidance instruction, (3) employers-based career education, and (4) career exploration (hands on) activities.
- **Career planning skills** (34 empirical studies). Career guidance interventions have a beneficial impact on acquiring career planning skills. Of the 34 studies, 27 demonstrated positive outcomes. Although many different interventions were used to achieve the outcomes, two were mentioned in over half of the studies of employer-based career education, vocational counseling, and counseling.
- **Career awareness and exploration** (44 empirical studies). Of the total, 31 studies showed positive results. The remaining 13 indicated there were either no significant differences between the groups studied, mixed results or minor differences. In terms of interventions that showed more positive outcomes, the following were most prevalent: career and vocational exploration, experience-based career education, counseling activities and career education classroom activities.

Based on this review of the research of the impact of career/vocational guidance (Campbell, Connel, Boyle, & Bhaerman, 1983) the following three conclusions are in order:

- The preponderance of evidence suggests that vocational guidance interventions achieve their intended outcomes if guidance personnel are given the opportunity to provide structured guidance interventions in a systematic, developmental sequence.
- Vocational guidance has demonstrated its effectiveness in influencing the career development and adjustment of individuals in the five broad outcome areas.
- Vocational guidance has been successful in assisting individuals representing a wide range of subpopulations and settings, such as in correctional institutions, vocational training centers, community colleges, and at-risk youth.

In summary, what is the answer to the question "Do vocational guidance interventions have a positive impact on students' career development outcomes?" The answer is "yes." The qualifier in all cases, however, is that vocational guidance does have an impact "if guidance personnel are given the opportunity to provide structured guidance interventions in a systematic and developmental sequence." This is an important if!

Retrospective Views from Working Adults

In order to determine past career development outcomes and what recommendations working adults would offer to vocational educators and counselors, a national poll was taken (Gallup, 1988, May). This national poll sponsored by the National Career Development Association centered around the issue of "Planning For and Working in America," and offers further evidence that vocational guidance is critical to economic and work success and stress reduction. Results of the poll also indicate where vocational guidance needs to be strengthened. The following are but a few of the findings concerning working adults:

- In 1986, 11 million adults needed assistance in selecting, changing, or obtaining a job.
- 45% experienced job stress.
- 33% had job, family, and personal relationship conflicts.
- Over 90% suggested they were unmotivated.
- 39% had initial career plans but 64% said they would prepare better next time.
- 15% did not know where to go for help and only 33% used professional counselors.
- Over 50% said they do not know how to use career information.
- 14% indicated that work is the most important life goal.
- Only 38% indicated that they made a conscious choice and followed a definite plan to their present career.
- 52% said not enough emphasis is currently being placed on preparing noncollege-bound students for careers.

In summary, these working adults strongly recommend that the career development outcomes that are planned for delivery in vocational education and guidance are most critical, not only to their work lives but also to all aspects of their life roles.

Students Drop Out of School and Life

Today, the only thing increasing faster than the national debt is the dropout rate from our junior and senior high schools. National figures estimate that the overall dropout rate has reached 30%. In some cities, the rate is much higher. Nationwide, between 800,000 and 1,000,000 youth drop out each year.

Even worse, many of these youth not only drop out of school, they also drop out of life. Close to 50% of these dropouts will disconnect from society entirely, turning instead to drugs, crime, suicide, and other outlets. And these dropouts cost our society approximately $145 billion each year in services and assistance, from prison support to welfare (The National Center for Research in Vocational Education [NCVE], 1986).

Studies underway at The Center on Education and Training for Employment, formerly the National Center for Vocational Education, suggest the reason students are not motivated to achieve in school is that the rewards for doing so are small.

Specifically:

- High levels of performance on standardized tests had no, or a slightly negative impact on graduates' wage rates in the two years following graduation.
- Having a good grade point average was actually associated with slightly lower wage rates for young men and with only a little higher wage rate for young women during the two years following graduation.
- High school graduates scoring 500 on both math and verbal SATs, rather than 400, typically attained only 5–8% more earnings in their lifetime (NCVE, 1986).

Apparently, high scores on tests and good grades do not improve students' opportunities for employment or raise wages.

A comparison made between potential and actual dropouts highlights the following:

- Although they may have taken an occasional vocational course, dropouts were much less likely to have selected a vocational specialty (e.g., electronics or secretarial training).
- Few dropouts had talked to their parents, other relatives, or friends about their educational plans.

- Dropouts were more frequently assigned to a particular school program rather than choosing one themselves.
- Dropouts were less likely to change their educational program or curriculum during their high school years (NCVE, 1986).

Having examined the vocational experiences that were most closely related to reductions in individual students' decisions to drop out, Weber (1986) recommends the following:

1. More systematic and intensive efforts to identify and assist potential dropouts prior to and at entry into vocational programs.
2. Program activities to enhance school climate and reduce absenteeism, class-cutting, and drug and alcohol abuse.
3. Systematic awareness and educational activities directed toward enhancing parents' involvement in program planning and support.
4. More extensive career exploration and related career guidance experiences, particularly prior to and at the transition into high school.
5. Improvement of transitions through a vocational program to direct dropout-prone students to job-specific skill training courses.
6. Review and evaluation of work study experiences for dropout-prone students to ensure that they involve concrete objectives and program experiences, clear linkages with students' overall school programs, and built-in evaluation activities.
7. Review of rules governing vocational program entry to ensure student access to and participation in vocational and work study programs with firm ties to overall school plans and goals.
8. Activities to increase dropout-prone students' participation in the vocational program and enhance linkages between students' vocational experiences and their other school-related experiences and activities (pp. x–xi).

Development of Job Skills

The vast majority of current workers, especially non-college bound individuals, grade their schools very low in regard to preparing them for jobs and careers (Gallup, 1988, May). Most adults recommended that schools should increase and improve the vocational education and guidance programs to assist all students in preparing for life after school.

They stated they needed to more fully understand the labor market, identify better where their career plans fit into the world of work when they leave school, and also to have the employability and occupational skills to enter and succeed at work.

Vocational educators and counselors must work together because we know that there is a direct relationship between early work success and failure. Youth with unfavorable early labor market experiences are less likely than others to have favorable subsequent experiences, all else being equal, unless their skills, attitudes, or values are modified. They also carry a stigma with them into new situations and are seen as disadvantaged by employers. For these reasons and more, many youth don't see transition to work as an acceptable objective. Knowing this, counselors and vocational teachers can work to provide youths and adults with favorable work experiences and to influence their attitudes and values.

Employers Decision Making

Frequently youth are not aware of employers' standards for hiring or for job performance. **Vocational teachers and counselors need to teach students that the following job interview and application factors have the greatest negative influence on employers' decisions to hire:**

- Below average reading ability
- Falsification of the job application
- Frequent job changes, quits, or layoffs
- High absenteeism on last job
- Low effort on last job
- No prior work experience

Students also need to know that the following interview and application factors have the greatest positive influence on employers decisions to hire:

- Clean and neat appearance at the interview
- Interest shown during the interview by asking questions about the job
- Interest shown after the interview by calling the employer
- Neat and correctly completed job application
- Resume attached to job application (Miguel & Foulk, 1984)

Carl D. Perkins Act—An Opportunity

The Carl Perkins legislation has defined career guidance, within the term vocational education and elsewhere throughout the law, as the body of subject matter and related techniques developmentally organized to assist in the career development of all individuals. Career guidance is designed to assist them to develop career awareness, career planning and decision skills, and employability and self-placement skills, all in the context of their having an informed understanding of local, state and national occupational, education, and labor market needs, trends and opportunities. This foundation experience has assisted increased numbers of youth and adults in their career development and their making of informed educational and occupational choices.

Specifically, the definition in the law, Section 521(4), reads as follows:

> **Definition:** (4) The term "career guidance and counseling" means those programs (A) which pertain to the body of subject matter and related techniques and methods organized for the development in individuals of career awareness, career planning, career decision-making, placement skills, and knowledge and understanding of local, state, and national occupational, education, and labor market needs, trends, and opportunities, and (B) which assist them in making and implementing informed educational and occupational choices.

As the definition is examined, it seems clear that (A) begins by coupling generic acknowledgement of both content and procedures within the context of the career development process. Then some skills and knowledge requirements are added under Section (A) while Section (B) is restricted to guidance program goals.

If vocational education is to be viewed as part of the solution to identified problems and challenges of our country, it is necessary to underscore the needed participation of other groups. As one of these groups historically and presently linked to programs capacitating individuals personally, socially, intellectually, and occupationally, the nation's guidance and counseling community is uniquely qualified to speak and participate as a full and equal partner with vocational education to help solve these problems and respond to these challenges. Without providing sound, comprehensive guidance and counseling

programs to those who will become instrumental in this country's prosperity, we will have failed in our obligation.

In our rush toward the rapid solution of massive social challenges it is easy to fall victim to a dangerous tunnel vision: that a quantifiable increase in the nation's trained work force will eliminate these problems. History has shown us the cost of such shortsightedness, for it overlooks the essential investments of individual choice, motivation, and perseverance that distinguish the purposeful from the aimless; the productive worker from the alienated laborer; those who know themselves, their options, and their capacities from those described (by themselves or others) as "out of skill, out of luck, and out of hope" (Drier & Gysbers, 1988).

A recent survey of state career guidance supervisors by Drier and Gysbers (1988) reported that thousands of counselors are using the Carl D. Perkins Act monies for massive program improvement. Some examples of how the 40 to 50 million dollars were spent in 1987 follow:

I. **Reskilling Activities (workshops/conferences)**
   Counselors—50,000 to 60,000
   Guidance Staff—700 to 800
   Counselor Educators—300 to 350

II. **Grade Level Concentration Priority**
   1. Senior High School
   2. Post High School
   3. Junior High School
   4. Adult
   5. Elementary

III. **Special Populations Served: Priority**
   1. Learning Disabled
   2. Mentally Retarded
   3. Physically Handicapped
   4. Dropout Prone
   5. Dropout
   6. Drug Dependent
   7. Returning Offenders

IV. **Guidance Activities Priority**
   1. Resources for Teachers and Counselors
   2. Counselor Inservice
   3. Computerized Career Information Systems

4. Student Assessment
5. Materials Development
6. Job Placement
7. Research
8. Work with Industry and Business

V. **Guidance Content Priority**
1. Career Planning
2. Career Decision-Making
3. Employability Skills
4. Job Placement Skills
5. Work World Information
6. Educational Information
7. Self-Understanding
8. Attitudes and Values
9. Job Search

The need for quality career guidance efforts in implementing the Carl D. Perkins Vocational Education Act is clear and obvious. Proper acknowledgement needs to be given to the late Congressman Perkins' commitment to helping students choose rather than settle for vocational education. Evidence is apparent that, if funds are appropriated, career guidance leaders are on the job, ready to allocate funds in ways that provide maximum help to the students, youth, and adults we all seek to serve. This evidence needs to be better communicated to policy makers to assure increased funding for the future.

Foundation for Vocational Guidance Improvement

There is some compelling evidence that vocational guidance and counseling programs have an impact on certain social, economic, and individual career development goals. It has also been stressed that guidance personnel must have the time, resources, and the opportunities to provide guidance interventions so that they can be done systematically and developmentally. Vocational guidance and counseling programs must be central to the delivery of all academic and vocational training. What follows are five basic premises from which career guidance and counseling programs in schools and institutions can be developed and managed so that guidance personnel, together with their academic and vocational colleagues, can fully assume their critical role in responding

to a nation's challenges and individual and societal needs (Drier & Gysbers, 1988).

First, guidance is a program. As a program, it has characteristics similar to other programs in education including:

- learner outcomes (competencies) in such areas as self-knowledge and interpersonal relations, decision-making and planning, and knowledge of life roles including worker and learner roles;
- activities and processes to assist learners to achieve outcomes such as these;
- professionally certified personnel;
- materials, budget, and resources; and
- valued, mandated, and appropriate credit.

Second, guidance programs are developmental and comprehensive. They are developmental in that guidance activities must be conducted on a regular and planned basis and in partnership with vocational teachers for youth to achieve required career development competencies. Whereas immediate and crisis needs of individuals must be met, a major focus of developmental programs is to provide individuals with experiences to help them grow and develop. Vocational guidance programs are comprehensive in that a full range of activities and services are provided including assessment, information, counseling, employability skill building, placement, follow-up, and follow-through.

Third, guidance programs focus on individuals' competencies not just their deficiencies. To some, a major focus in guidance is on the programs that individuals have and on the obstacles that they may face. This emphasis is important, but it should not be dominant. If it is emphasized in isolation, attention often focuses on what is wrong with individuals, not what is right. Obviously, problems and obstacles need to be identified and remediated, but they should not overshadow the existing or potential competencies of individuals. A major emphasis in vocational guidance programs should be on helping individuals identify the competencies they already have plus assisting them in developing new ones.

Individual Commitment

Vocational educators and counselors must recognize that the improved achievement is a function of a student's commitment to personal

excellence. When students are committed, they are positively directed toward effective decision making, planning, and preparation. This demands that there be vocational guidance and training for tomorrow's workplace.

Improved student educational achievement then, is shaped by the student's ability to pursue programs that challenge their abilities, provide access to opportunity, and rest upon self-knowledge and informed choice. The key ingredients then are the students and their commitment to their own future.

Summary

Providing all students with an effective transition to work is both the responsibility of and critical concern of all school staff and especially vocational and guidance personnel. Students who are personally committed to personal success, who possess the confidence in their abilities and self-knowledge necessary to make informed choices, can effectively pursue educational opportunities with the expectation of achieving meaningful and desired outcomes. Current research reinforces the fact that most students cannot do this, especially without improved and increased vocational guidance, and the education provided by the vocational program that helps students learn about themselves, their intelligence, their strengths, and their goals. For this reason, vocational guidance should be mandated as an integrating program that better ensures improved career maturity thus leading to improved performance in the workplace and in other life roles.

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Adolescent Career Decision Processes as Coping Responses to the Social Environment

David A. Jepsen

Adolescents and young adults face several predictable choices among work-related actions such as choosing to enter some school courses and not to enter others, choosing whether to get a job or to continue with schooling and choosing a field of work as a career goal. These predictable choices are often linked sequentially, that is, the actions chosen at an early time may limit the possible actions available for later choices. For example, the school courses entered may affect available post-high school educational opportunities. Taking a particular job may affect job entry or advancement at a later date.

The choices are experienced by the adolescent as **personal career decisions** so-called because the individual is expected to bear the consequences of the action taken. The time period during which the predictable choice is addressed is the **career decision point**, which may last for several years or a few days. For example, choosing an entry job may be accomplished within a few days or may involve preparations over several years.

The accumulation of actions resulting from these sequential personal decisions constitutes the "flow of experience" called adolescent career development. Indeed, a flowing stream serves as a useful metaphor for career experiences. The new career stream finds its own channel to fit the contours of the social and economic surroundings. It flows steadily forward making turns at decision points, widening to indicate broadened time involvement, deepening to indicate stronger emotions, and

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changing the rate of flow to fit the social environment. Parents, teachers, and counselors seek to affect the flow of experience by helping adolescents create a channel and guide the direction and rate of the flow.

The segment of adolescent career development described in this paper is the developing **ability to cope** successfully during the important career decision points. Thus, adolescent career development includes mastering decision-making **processes** as well as finding satisfying **content**; it involves learning effective ways to decide in addition to finding actions that lead to pleasing outcomes. This ability to cope with changing societal demands under conditions of uncertainty is an important aspect of personality development during adolescence.

The general adequacy of career decision-making processes early in the life-span is important because it prepares the person for addressing later decision points and thus contributes to personal growth and development. Successful decision-making provides the maturing person with a heightened sense of potency, competency, and identity that form the basis for continued growth in the adult years. Failure to master the challenges of career decision points during this age may leave the person with dampened hopes, self-doubts, regret, and confusion about his/her identity.

The purpose of this paper is to describe the social context for adolescent career decisions. The focus will be on the social conditions preceding a career decision point, that is, the covert and overt actions that lead up to the time for a decision. Although psychological decision-making models have heuristic value for counselors, they have not been helpful in understanding the **context** in which career decisions are achieved.

Specifically, we will describe how messages from important social reference groups such as the family, the school, and peer group stimulate adolescents to address personal career decisions. Complexity and detail in the description have been sacrificed in order to present a concise and flexible set of ideas easily recalled by counselors and applied in helping youth with varied career decisions. It is an attempt to provide counselors with an additional set of conceptual tools to aid in understanding and intervening in adolescent career decision-making. (See Jepsen, 1984, for a full discussion of how practicing counselors utilize concepts from theory.)

Applying Psychological Decision Theory

The critical person career choices in adolescence lend themselves to analysis using the concepts from psychological decision theory (e.g., Edwards, 1954, 1961; Hogarth, 1987; Janis & Mann, 1977). A set of concepts derived from the work of world-renowned thinkers (including several Nobel Prize winners) representing many academic disciplines (e.g., philosophy, economics, statistics, sociology and management, as well as several fields in psychology) has been applied to the psychological dynamics of career decisions. These applications were first described in several theoretical models appearing during the 1960s. They have been synthesized into the following general description of decision processes:

> A decision-making conceptual framework assumes the presence of a **decision-maker**, a **decision situation** (social expectation), and relevant **information** both within and outside the person. The information is arranged into decision-making concepts according to the functions it serves. Two or more alternative **actions** are considered and several **outcomes** or consequences are anticipated from each action. Each outcome has two characteristics: **probability**, or likelihood of occurrence in the future, and **value** or relative importance. The information is arranged according to a strategy so that the decision-maker can readily recognize an advantageous course of action and make a **commitment** to this action. Strategies, also called rules or criteria, guide the assembling of the above concepts into an array so that straightforward judgments can reveal the commitment. Strategies are not concepts but structures; that is, they are aspects of the personality acquired prior to initiating the decision process and, as such, function as properties of the organism (e.g., the disposition called "risk-taking"). (Jepsen & Dilley, 1974, p. 332)

These psychological decision-making concepts (that is, the terms in bold) are organized into a **decision tree** (Raiffa, 1968), a common metaphor for structuring decision problems, and displayed in Figure 1. The decision point in the scheme marks the onset of the decision-making processes defined as **the cluster of conscious, cognitive acts given in response to an expectation for future action in one of two or more**

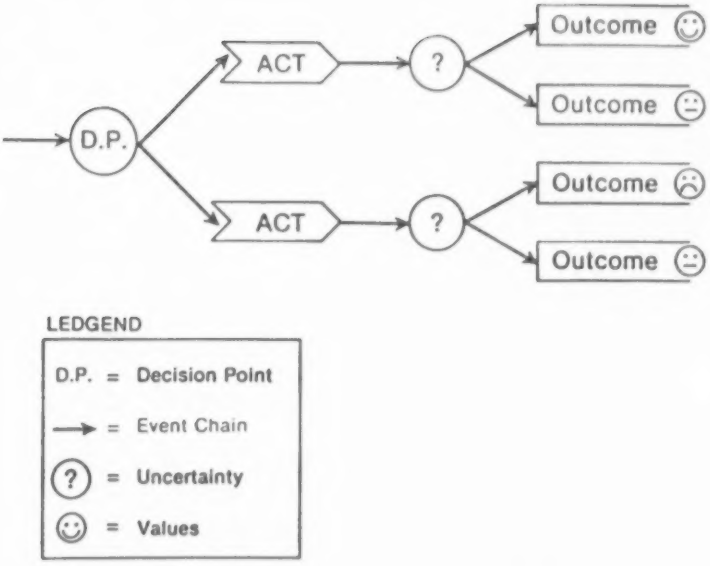


Figure 1. Schematic Representation of Career Decision Processes

competing modes. The "expectation for future action" is communicated to the decision-maker by social reference groups and will be elaborated on later in this paper. "Competing modes (of action)" are conceptions of "future action"—not roles such as occupations but rather actions such as making application for a job or training program—that form a set from which only one member can be enacted at a given time.

The uncertainty signified by "?" indicates a particular state of knowledge. Decision-makers believe they have personal control over their own immediate actions, but the consequences of these actions are not fully known because environmental conditions have a strong influence. Forces outside their control are expected to interact with personally initiated actions and thus produce the uncertainty about the chain of future events.

One final ingredient necessary for a decision is the amount of time to carry out the process. If there is not enough time to attend to goals (i.e., future **outcomes**) and alternative means of reaching them (i.e., the **acts** available), then the process is more properly construed as simply a reaction or a habit rather than a decision.

The counseling applications of the vast philosophical and scientific knowledge about human decision-making to career choice problems has taken two forms: **prescriptions** for rational behavior and **descriptions** of behavioral patterns. Some counselors have translated decision-making models into **prescriptions** for rational behavior and proceeded to derive a set of recommended steps for reducing errors in decision-making. See, for example, the steps suggested by Kinnier and Krumboltz (1984). The counselors' task then becomes that of helping adolescents to perform the prescribed behaviors in sequence and, thus, eventually achieve a rational decision or, more accurately, to arrive at a commitment through a process that avoids irrationality. Counseling procedures often focused on one isolated step such as seeking relevant career information about acts and associated outcomes (see the classic series of studies at Stanford initiated by Krumboltz & Thoresen, 1964) or estimating probabilities that certain outcomes would result from acts (see Gelatt and Clarke, 1967). Other counseling programs focused on teaching an entire rational strategy. Examples are the computer-assisted program called System of Interactive Guidance and Information (SIGI) (Katz, 1975) and the classroom curriculum called *Decisions and Outcomes* (Gelatt, Varenhorst, Carey, & Miller, 1973).

While these procedures have demonstrated some successful outcomes, the results have not always been entirely satisfying for the

counselor nor for the full range of adolescents served by a counseling program. For example, teaching youth to explore more information sources has a limiting return to the total career decision-making process and, in the extreme, may have a paralyzing effect on the total process. For example, there is some evidence from the Career Pattern Study (Jordaan & Super, 1974) that higher frequency of some forms of adolescent career exploration is associated with **lower** levels of career progress in the young adult years. Clearly, increased information-seeking has its practical and theoretical limits.

A second example is the effect of showing adolescents the available evidence about their probabilities of experiencing particular outcomes if they initiate certain acts. For example, adolescents shown the probability of their success in college or training programs (based on prior experiences of similar people) may not perform the cognitive processes necessary to translate the data into information useful for their personal decision-making process. In summary, imposing a rational decision-making framework upon the adolescent's flow of career experiences may not always be helpful to the career counseling process.

As an alternative, other counselors have used decision-making models to enhance **descriptions** of adolescents' experiences as they address predictable career choices. Counselors using descriptive decision-making models believe in the continuity of events within the life history of the individual decision-maker. The prescription of external, rational principles, while important, is secondary to the identification of internal perceptions and conceptions about past and anticipated future experiences. The decision-making model provides a conceptual framework for organizing and assessing the adolescent's critical experiences. Rather than using the framework as a more-or-less fixed ideal from which to prescribe next steps, counselors use the framework to organize inductively the decision-maker's thoughts and feelings into a general strategy and, then, to assess the strategy for desirable attributes of the decision-making process such as thoroughness, detail, consistency, and continuity. The decision-making concepts serve as categories into which the decision-maker's reflections or experiences—past, present, **and** future—are sorted.

An early review of decision models (Jepsen & Dilley, 1974) revealed a gap in many theoretical models that limited their application in the practical work of career counseling: the ambiguity surrounding the concept of "awareness of decision situation" or the decision point in Figure 1. Many models did not specify the conditions which stimulated

decision processes and other models did not supply details about the antecedent events to the decision point. The generalized formulations about decision-making events appear to be incomplete with regard to the conditions that precede the decision-making behavior. This greatly limits the application of descriptive decision-making models to the small group of adolescents who are actively engaged in career decision-making processes.

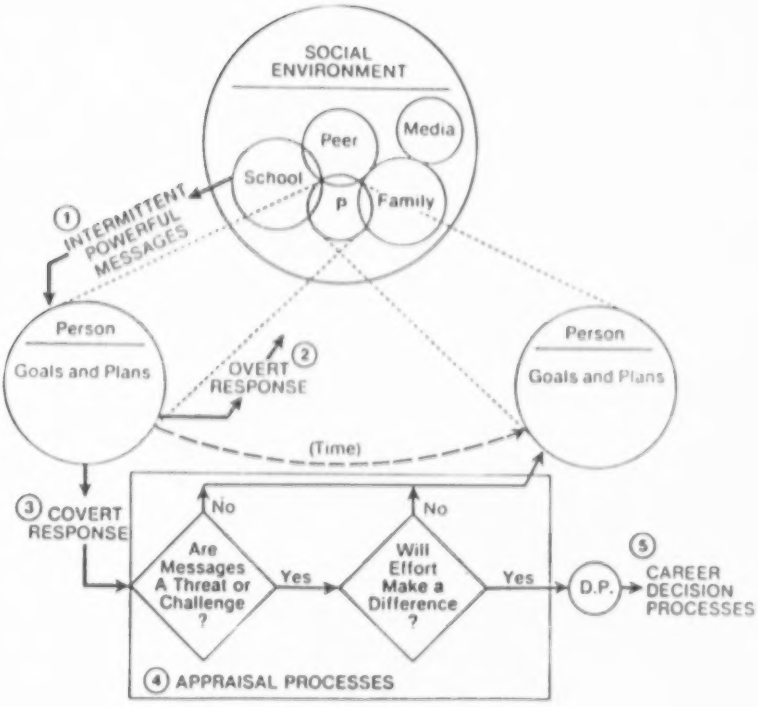
The Antecedent Events to a Career Decision Point

The diagram in Figure 2 presents a scheme representing the conditions and events that precede the experience of a career decision point. The scheme is a simplified version of what happens before adolescents can utilize a decision-making model as a guide or perform cognitive operations on their career experience "material."

An adolescent's social environment is comprised of several primary social groups to which most adolescents belong, especially the family of origin, the several subgroups in schools such as classes and activity groups, and the peer friend group. Borow (1984) called these groups the principle agents of socialization. Other groups are important to some, but not all, adolescents such as the extended family, the co-worker group on a job, a religious group or the group of families comprising a neighborhood. The importance of these groups for adolescent career decision-making lies in the **intermittent powerful messages** they send to the adolescent conveying aspects of a general expectation to take the actions necessary to enter productive work roles.

The messages are intermittent in that they are only somewhat predictable. Not all adolescents get the same messages nor are they delivered as powerfully to all adolescents nor are the messages delivered to all adolescents at the same time. The content of the messages and their delivery vary across social environments. The messages received are usually powerful in that they come from sources perceived to have greater status and authority in the social system than does the individual adolescent. Furthermore, the messages usually have strong emotional overtones that add to their strength.

The messages occur in various forms; some are direct such as a father's inquiry about "What are you gonna do when you get out of school?" and others are more subtle such as the news that a friend is thinking about entering the military service.



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(1) Intermittent Powerful Messages from Social Environment
(2) Overt Response by Person
(3) Covert Response by Person
(4) Appraisal Processes
(5) Career Decision Processes

Figure 2. Schematic Representation of Antecedent Events to Career Decision Processes

Table 1 contains a list of prototypical sources and messages adolescents received about career planning and arranged by the general nature of the message source within the adolescent's social surroundings.

The first group of messages are those conveyed in a dyadic interchange such as a conversation with a friend or a parent or a teacher. The second group includes messages conveyed within one of the primary groups but without the decision-maker being a part of the conversation necessarily. Examples include conversations at a family meal, a peer group "bull session," or a school classroom discussion. The third group of messages are those conveyed through media presentations either to large live audiences, through the electronic or print media, or on bulletin boards or billboards. As the reader can readily grasp, there are many events in the adolescent's social surroundings that send messages stimulating thought about career decisions.

Adolescents respond both overtly and covertly to the messages perceived as important to their plans and goals. They may respond overtly with statements or actions and covertly in private thoughts and feelings. Decision-making models, represented by the simple scheme in Figure 1, elaborate on convert responses.

The overt and covert responses may not be consistent with each other; that is, adolescents may say things publicly that are not consistent with what they are thinking privately. Indeed it seems plausible that a great many adolescents make up something to say at times when they are uncertain or conflicted in their private thoughts about their plans. Nevertheless, the overt responses may give clues to the internal conflict, doubt, lack of confidence, defensiveness, or vulnerability being experienced internally. Counselors' skills are often tested as they try to facilitate adolescents' overt expression and subsequent examination of these covert thoughts and feelings before serious public action is attempted. Counselors play a fundamental role in easing the expression of adolescents' strong feelings about the messages received from social surroundings.

The adolescent's covert reactions include an appraisal of the social messages in much the same manner as stressful conditions are appraised (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984) and decision-maker's appraise the circumstances surrounding a difficult decision (Janis & Mann, 1977). The covert appraisal process is represented in Figure 2 as two sequentially arranged, binary questions. The questions are, of course, representative of the covert activity and not necessarily considered in a literal sense.

Table 1
Social Messages Stimulating Career Decision Processes

A. Messages from dyadic interchanges with an individual member of a primary social group.
   1. **Direct inquiry** about future plans.
   2. **Feedback** on current roles and performances.
   3. **Information** about opportunities to take action or possible outcomes from actions.
   4. **Promise** of additional information about opportunities.

B. Messages from observing interchanges within group setting.
   1. **Enforcement of group "rules"** whether formal rules such as application deadlines or informal rules such as normative information about performance of group.
   2. **Boundary Descriptions** such as finding out who is "in" or "out" of a formal group.
   3. **Orientation** into next "stages" or levels of performance within the group.

C. Messages from media presentations to large audiences.
   1. **"Facts"** about opportunities for actions or possible outcomes from actions.
   2. **Persuasion** about opportunities or outcomes.
   3. **Role Models** performing their usual functions.

The first question is "Do the messages constitute a threat or a challenge to my goals?" The focus is on the person's preferences for future outcomes or goals. The self-addressed inquiries are about whether bad things will happen in the future (goal-frustrating experiences) or whether good things will be missed in the future (goal-facilitating experiences) that will effect goal attainment. The adolescent is checking to see if the image of a desired future state, i.e., the **goal**, or the anticipated means to achieving the goal, i.e., the **plan**, should be revised in some way. If the adolescent answers "No" to the inquiry, that is, concludes there is no threat or challenge to the present goals, then the adolescent continues with his/her present goals and plans.

If, on the other hand, the message is perceived as a threat or challenge, then the person asks a second question: "Will my personal efforts

make a difference?" The focus of this second inquiry is on the relationship between imagined goals/plans and available information and skill resources. The person is asking if she/he can exert sufficient influence on the environment to initiate the planned actions. A second consideration is if the person presently has or could obtain enough resources to make a new action possible. Beliefs about whether actions will be fruitful are very similar to **self-efficacy** beliefs as discussed by Bandura (1977) and translated into the language of career development by Hackett and Betz (1981).

If the answer to the second question is "No," then the adolescent is unlikely to revise his/her plans since no new action opportunities seem to be available. Instead, she/he returns to the original career goals and plans and does not engage in career decision process. Indeed these persons may appear to be unnecessarily defensive when asked about their career plans since they feel a bit trapped by external circumstances as they perceive them. Furthermore, counseling may seem ineffective simply because the adolescent has become disengaged from the processes counselors are attempting to influence.

If the answer is "Yes," then the adolescent is ready to initiate career decision processes within the limits of his/her cognitive resources and emotional states. The person has identified in the message a challenge or threat to his/her goal and has confidence that his/her thoughts in a plan and the actions they represent will make a difference in meeting one's own needs through future actions.

Implications for Counselors

The events preceding a career decision point have important practical implications for career counselors. Counselors possess the skills to help adolescents prepare for career decision-making as well as guide them through the processes. The model of antecedent conditions points toward five particular functions counselors can serve. Available space doesn't allow for an extensive list of techniques but a few illustrations are provided.

First, counselors can help adolescents to distinguish and clarify the powerful messages communicated by the particular groups in their social environment. When adolescents exhibit the "symptoms" of career indecision such as conflict, uncertainty, doubt, defensiveness, or lack of confidence, the counselor may want to encourage the adolescent to

review recent events associated with these feelings. One approach is to inquire about which groups are important to the adolescent, help the person to identify each group's expectations, and discuss the nature of the expectation, that is, whether it is a "demand" or a "preference."

An example of a structured approach to discussing the family is the genogram (Okiishi, 1987). Not only are the family members identified by age, gender, occupation, and familial relationship, but the adolescent's perceptions of success, change, family traditions and family rules are also discussed. Second, counselors can help adolescents to focus on their covert responses and thus reveal what they are telling themselves. After discussing the overt response—what the adolescent has told the "group," the covert response can be elicited by such questions as "what do you tell yourself?" Sometimes a discussion of common irrational beliefs or career myths (Lewis & Gilhausen, 1981) or irrational expectations concerning vocations (Nevo, 1987) will help elicit self-statements. A lighter approach is to use humor not only to establish closer communication and lessen the feeling of distance between counselor and adolescent, but also to assist the adolescent to consider how seriously they are taking the problem (Nevo, 1986). The author's personal favorites are cartoons and clippings with irony or overstatement about career planning, especially cartoons featuring fortune tellers. Another light approach is using the list of "diverse decision-makers" (Donald & Carlisle, 1983) to represent types of decision-makers with humorous, descriptive names, such as "Last Minute Louis."

Third, counselors help adolescents to appraise the content of powerful messages. The adolescent can be challenged to evaluate the external demands against the person's internal personal goals, even if the latter are somewhat half-formed. The adolescent can be encouraged to treat the message as an hypothesis and to look for evidence supporting or refuting the message. Appeals to check one's "gut feelings" and "intuition" are usually acceptable and understood by adolescents. Some variation of the literal form of the first appraisal question in Figure 2 can raise issues appropriate for consideration in collaboration with the adolescent.

Fourth, counselors help adolescents to inventory their resources for meeting the demands of the decision. Is there enough information, time, support, and initiative to address the decision? If not, how can the resources be found? Where? When? There are many times when the person simply is not "ready" to engage in career decision processes due to the lack of resources. Sometimes, counselors and their adolescent

clients must talk about how to obtain the requisite resources before discussing the decision. Of course, counselors can be instrumental in obtaining resources such as information ("Let's see what this source says about . . ."), time ("I'd like to hear more about your thoughts at . . .") and support ("You have made important progress . . .").

Fifth, counselors help to orchestrate the delivery of powerful messages through organizing and facilitating discussions between adolescents and the groups listed in Table 1. Parent-adolescent, peer-peer, teacher-adolescent dialogues can be encouraged. The counselor can facilitate communication in the dialogue in order to minimize misunderstandings and to keep a balance of power. While not often attempted by counselors, parent-adolescent groups have promise. In addition, classroom presentations and assembly programs can be arranged by the counselor to present general messages about such topics as the importance of personal choices and the power of the individual in the decision-making process.

Summary

Adolescent career decisions occur within a social context. Most career decision-making models have not elaborated on the specific conditions that stimulate career decision processes. A description of the events occurring prior to a career decision point have been described in a simplified scheme. The emphasis is on the adolescent's primary social groups and the intermittent powerful messages they send to the adolescent conveying expectations about the actions and outcomes involved in career decision-making. The kinds of messages from social groups that stimulate career decision processes, the adolescents' overt responses, and the adolescents' covert processes of appraising the powerful messages are considered as critical events occurring **prior to** career decision processes. The counselor can serve an important role in assisting adolescents to prepare for career decision-making.

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This paper is a revised version of an article titled "Antecedent Events to Adolescent Career Decision Processes" which appears in the May, 1989, issue of *Guidance and Counseling*. It is printed with permission from the Ontario Institute for Studies in Education, Toronto, Ontario, Canada.

A Saleable Skill as a High School Graduation Requirement? Is That Really the Question?

Edwin L. Herr
Thomas E. Long

Since the beginning of the American republic nearly two hundred years ago, national debates have ensued about the purposes of secondary education. Thomas Jefferson argued for essentially a general or liberal education to ensure that the citizens of the democracy emerging in the late 1700's would be able to read, write, and participate in the political process. Benjamin Franklin, however, believed in combining general education with what would now be considered as courses in vocational education so that students would complete the secondary school both literate and with employment skills. Jefferson's model was focused on the political development of the nation; Franklin's model was focused on its economic development (Herr, 1986).

While oversimplifying the matter, the contrasting views of Jefferson and Franklin about educational purpose and outcome have echoed and been redefined many times during the past 20 decades. The National Commission on Excellence report *A Nation at Risk* (1983) is the most recent of these occasions. That report argued for greater rigor in the academic and basic skills preparation of all students in the secondary school. It argued for increased graduation standards in English, mathematics and science, and in other general education areas. It did not advocate vocational education or other skill training as major elements of secondary education, nor did it argue for a saleable skill for students

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for high school graduation. However controversial the tone and the substance of *A Nation at Risk* was, it unleashed a torrent of national and state reports which examined the state of education in the United States and stimulated action to reform or strengthen instructional processes, teaching-learning, and the substance of education.

A by-product, if not the direct result, of the national debate about education since 1983 is the rediscovery of education as the major national instrument available to develop a citizenry and a workforce which is purposeful, productive, and committed to maintaining and participating in the American opportunity structure. Without a literate and flexible workforce, a growing number of observers contend that the role of the United States in international economic competition will rapidly erode, decreasing the quality of life for its citizens, and the nation's standing as a major player in the global economy.

Whatever its value as a stimulus to educational reform, international economic competition clearly gives major importance to the need for an educated labor force, to quality in its human capital, if any nation is to compete successfully in the design, production, and distribution of goods and services which are sought by consumers in domestic and in international markets. Given a shortage of adolescents and the pervasive rise in requirements for literacy and numeracy in the emerging occupational structure as a function of the wide-spread application of advanced technology, efforts to provide appropriate education and training must occur across all student intellectual levels and across all types of aspiration. Thus, every student must be helped to develop the skills and motivations to be as competent and as productive as possible in whatever endeavor he or she chooses to pursue. It is clear that the nation can no longer afford dropouts and other educational slippage. Historic opportunities for unskilled and semi-skilled persons to obtain a job in manufacturing, mining, construction and other forms of heavy industry are rapidly disappearing as robots and other technologies are being applied to these jobs. Therefore, educational institutions and programs will need to find ways to develop all increments of talent on as comprehensive a basis as possible.

But, given the diversity of secondary school students' post-high school plans—e.g., college, homemaking, military, part-time work/part-time school, full-time work—should educators concentrate on providing every high school student with a saleable skill to market in the workplace? Is the high school even capable of doing so when some students plan intervening post-secondary education before going to work? If the

high school were to concentrate on providing students with saleable skills, what would they be? Should educators foster programs which help all students develop broad-ranging career skills? These questions update and extend the two-century old contrasting views of Jefferson and Franklin. They are also worthy of deliberation in state planning and local educational forums.

The issue, at the present time, is probably not properly framed as, "Should schools require each student to leave school with a saleable or marketable skill?" Such a conceptualization suggests that one can sort out skills and provide them in some independent and uni-dimensional way. Therefore, the more appropriate question is how can schools provide learning and the resulting skills which increase the marketability of its graduates. The skills that will make students employable or "saleable" are many in number. They include knowledge and skills which are occupation-specific, job-specific or firm-specific. Frequently, after some basic skill development in the school, the job-specific or firm-specific skills are likely to be better taught at the work place than in the school. On the other hand, general employability skills which are primarily in the attitudinal, moral and ethical, personality, and behavioral domains, as well as some occupation-specific skills, can and should be taught in school and be expected to be assimilated by students as part of graduation requirements.

Saleable Skills/Employability Skills—What Are They?

It is important to note at the outset of this discussion of saleable or employability skills that, as one looks to the year 2000 and the rapid changes in the workplace now occurring, the ultimate, or perhaps it is better to say the minimum employability skills, will be basic academic skills: communication and language, mathematics, and science skills. Over the next decade and into the next century, there will be fewer jobs available for persons who are functionally illiterate, who cannot read and follow directions, communicate with others, or conduct simple calculations accurately and rapidly. Basic academic skills allow one to learn, to be teachable, and to be flexible.

As technological adaptation in a variety of forms continues to take place in the nation's workplaces, the economic development of individual firms and other enterprises will suffer if its employees are not able or willing to learn new production systems or new management strategies.

While skills in language, mathematics, and science are important to such processes, there are other qualitative skills likely to be critical in such employment environments as well. Employability skills have been defined by the Congressional Office of Technology Assessment (Office of Technology Assessment, U.S. Congress, 1988, May) in the following way:

Skills of Problem Recognition and Definition

- Recognizing a problem that is not clearly presented
- Defining the problem in a way that permits clear analysis and action
- Tolerating ambiguity

Handling Evidence

- Collecting and evaluating evidence
- Working with insufficient information
- Working with excessive evidence

Analytical Skills

- Brainstorming
- Hypothesizing counter arguments
- Using analogies

Skills of Implementation

- Recognizing the limitations of available resources
- Recognizing the feedback of and proposed solution to the system
- The ability to recover from mistakes

Human Relations

- Negotiation and conflict resolution
- Collaboration in problem solving

Learning Skills

- The ability to identify the limits of your own knowledge
- The ability to ask pertinent questions
- The ability to penetrate poor documentation
- The ability to identify sources of information (documents and people)

These skills are, in their own way, intellectual skills important not only to manufacturing but to service industries. They represent the survival skills necessary in a rapidly changing and information rich environment. They are also skills which are or can be taught in secondary schools. They should be the competencies expected of graduates.

In addition to the skills cited above, an increasing number of employers are extending their conceptions of basic skills to include self-discipline, reliability, perseverance, accepting responsibility and respect for the rights of others (U.S. Department of Education/U.S. Department of Labor, 1988). Other observers discuss the need for adaptive skills and for transferrable skills (Pratzner & Ashley, 1985). These skills frequently include work context skills, self and career management skills, and decision-making skills.

These skills are increasingly defined as general employability skills as contrasted with work performance, occupation-specific, or firm-specific skills which tend to emphasize technical content rather than the affective dimensions of choosing, preparing for, and adjusting to work. In Britain and in some European countries, "general employability skills" are referred to as "industrial discipline" to reflect their attention to effective work attitudes and habits, as well as personal responsibility in and commitment to work. Such general employability skills are important across the spectrum of work and are, in that sense, very elastic in their application and less likely to become obsolete than are technical or work performance skills. Like technical skills, general employability skills must be learned through some combination of modeling, reinforcement and incentives.

Elementary, and particularly secondary, schools have major contributions to make to such learning and they should reflect the close relationships between these skills and learning and work performance. Certainly vocational education needs to include teaching of such skills in concert with other entry-level occupational skills. These general employability skills do not substitute for the basic academic skills nor

job performance skills per se, but they are clearly mediators of how such academic or job performance skills will be practiced and, therefore, they are saleable in their own right.

As suggested in this section, saleable skills are of many types. The literature is replete with their documentation and discussion. Briefly stated, they can be dichotomized between those which are occupational performance skills, that is, those skills necessary to perform the job, and occupational survival skills which are related to obtaining and keeping a job. Both types are needed to make one saleable and employable. Each adds its own multiplier to the career calculus of employability. Thus, today, occupation specific and survival skills are often integrated and referred to as employability skills. In most situations, one cannot sell well-developed occupational skills if one cannot or will not adapt to the requirements of the workplace, relate to fellow employees, take care of the employer's equipment and serve customers in an acceptable fashion. For example, an exceptionally talented and skilled automobile mechanic who, in his work, abuses the paint or upholstery of customer's cars will not be employed for long. In such a case, certain desirable and required employability skills are missing. Their absence would affect the marketability of other well demonstrated skills, thereby affecting one's employability.

In broad terms, then, one's marketability or "saleability" relates to one's employability. Haccoun and Campbell (1972) classified work-entry employability skills into two domains, those related to finding a job and maintaining career, and those related to performance of the job itself. Dunn (1974) described occupational skills as being either general employability skills, those which can be applied in many work settings, or specific employability skills, those related to satisfaction of specific occupational tasks. Herr and Long (1983), in addressing the many employability issues of youth, discussed employability as being an issue constrained by skills gaps and job gaps. Skill gaps represent employability problems. They relate to gaps between skills the applicant possesses and skills the occupation requires. These skills range from very specific occupational skills to more collective workplace survival skills. On the other hand, job gaps relate to employment problems associated with the availability of workers and the number of jobs to be filled. Job gaps correlate mainly with opportunity in a geographical area which, in turn, is related to the local economy and the success of industrial development in the area.

Finally, high school curriculum planners might dichotomize employability skills as being skills related to performance **on the job** and skills related to performance **of the job**. They might also think of saleability skills as being those related to finding and acquiring a job (selling oneself) and employability skills as being those necessary to maintain a job. Regardless of how various career-oriented competencies are formulated and classified, it must be recognized that the American high school has a central role to play in developing them whether or not they are reflected specifically in graduation standards.

The American High School and Saleable/Employability Skills

Until the recent educational reform movement began in 1983, the role of the secondary school in creating an internationally competitive work force has been understated.

The same understatement does not exist in other nations. From an international perspective it has become clear that the school provides the medium for "social engineering," in the most positive sense, of all the attitudes and skills of significance to the work force. It has been said of Japan, for example, that "Americans have yet to recognize fully that we are competing not only with the Japanese factory, but with the Japanese school as well...The Japanese have not only invited us into competition at the market place, they are inviting us into educational competition" (Duke, 1986, p. 16). The Japanese have obviously recognized the interrelatedness of the factory and the school. In their view, "the industrial productivity of a nation is intimately related to, as it were, the productivity of its schools" (Duke, 1986, p. 20). While most American observers look at management style, quality circles, industrial processes, and factory output, they miss the fact that the Japanese workers' skills, high rates of literacy and numeracy, attitudes toward work, loyalty to the group and to their employer, diligence and cooperation are carefully nurtured from first grade forward in the schools. The lesson from the Japanese is that "a nation's competitiveness cannot be measured merely in terms of factory output, rates of productivity, or day-to-day management practices. Rather, the overall competitiveness of a nation's factories derives from the effectiveness of the entire infrastructure of the society; basic to that is the school system" (Duke, 1986, p. 20). Skill gap, or

employability/saleability problems are capable of being addressed in high schools and by individuals in their independent learning activities.

Although youthful dilemmas regarding career paths, placements and employment problems are common among recent high school graduates, 75% of American youth do in fact complete their high school education. Therefore, it can be asserted that the high school experience represents the major potential solution to employability problems for youth. However, while most American youth do earn the high school diploma, the common experience ends there. Because of learning style differences and different home or neighborhood environments, each learner psychologically, emotionally and intellectually individualizes his or her own education. Curricular experiences differ across academic and diverse specialty oriented vocational programs. Participation in the same curricular program in the same school does not make the products of that program similar.

Guidance and career development offerings vary from school to school. Even vocational programs, which purport to prepare people for specific jobs, do not produce graduates who are equally employable. What, then, might be the case for graduates of non-vocational programs which specifically purport only to prepare one for further education and which essentially ignore career entry issues? What, then, is a pragmatic and realistic answer to employability problems of youth which might be addressed in the high schools of America? Perhaps the best answer to that question is to have schools systematically inject career education content into their curriculum and into guidance and counseling programs to complement general and specialty programs in the schools. Much of the content of career education would be found in the employability skills discussed above.

Academic Education and Employability Education

The regular school curriculum, with its broad and diverse curricular web, is an excellent forum in which to address many of the employability needs of students. There exists wide-ranging knowledge concerning the value of academic studies to post-secondary and higher education. Probably less understanding exists about the value of general academic studies as foundations for the occupational, social, and familial elements of this society.

Some high school students pursue a high school curriculum which concentrates only on academic subjects to prepare for collegiate studies. Others take academic studies without certainty of college matriculation. Mathematics, science, language, communication and expression receive most of the attention. Many schools today also expose most students to computer literacy programs. Each of these areas is an important source of employability skills, although more is required. For example, probably less often addressed in high schools is information about the nature of the capitalist society, the workplace as an economic system, labor in a democratic society, the place of the free enterprise system in a world economy, distribution of income, production, human capital and education, and supply and demand issues. Such information, however, is basic information for citizenship and for understanding the lifestyle of the nation. Such information also relates to employability and effective participation in the work force.

Also, frequently not addressed are the ways in which work is valuable to the individual psychologically, economically, socially, and spiritually. But, such information is important to the employability of new workers as they make the transition from school to work and as they plan and manage their own career development, strive for independence, and participate in the nation's competition for jobs, markets, and trade. Such curricular material, if presented, is most likely to be presented as independent instructional topics in civics and social studies classes. Yet, to promote a student's poise and competence in employability concerns, material related to personal, corporate and international competition must be linked and integrated to insure that youth have adequate understandings of the individual, societal and international economic forces to which they must contribute and adjust.

Furthermore, many academic activities, social education or psychology courses can help students consider what might be adequate self-concepts for citizens, employees, and heads of families. Such courses might also support one's personal explorations regarding work in this society as well as the development of personal attributes of loyalty, dependability, integrity, reliability, and honesty as they relate to personal enterprise and the workplace.

If we accept the tenet reiterated by Haughsby and Schulman (1978) "that education is not, as some suggest, preparation for life; it must be fully a part of life" (p. 91), we must accept the indisputability of the belief that general academic courses have the potential to promote the development and delivery of employability skills of all students. Such

goals must be seen as important to the school's mission and plans must be made for such outcomes to occur.

Readers interested in further exploration of the employability issue and career implications of academic subject matter can refer to the book *Career Education in the Academic Classroom* (Mangum, Becker, Coombs, & Marshall, 1975). The book has sections which deal with delivering career education through instruction in mathematics, science, English, social studies, visual arts, foreign languages, health sciences, recreation and physical education.

Vocational or Specialty Education and Employability Education

Vocational or specialty education, specific forms of high school preparation for acquiring occupational entry into the world of work, are typically comprehensive in addressing occupational and employability skills for students enrolled. Skills of-the-job and related skills for on-the-job success are developed by students enrolled in industrial, business, agricultural, health, home economics and distributive education programs. Many students involve themselves in hands-on work in programs such as cooperative education and work study where they take on adult roles and actually perform a job (Herr & Long, 1983). Knowledge about career entry, adjustment, maintenance, and progression in employment are regularly made part of these specialty education curricula. Guidance and career assistance services which complement either academic or vocational specialization programs should be laden with self-exploration, career awareness, decision-making and placement components. Through the linking of curricular experiences with guidance and counseling toward a specific goal, students can be provided the general employability skills to pursue their career goals with poise and competence.

Career Education and Employability Education

Career education, according to Hoyt (1978), represents:

> ...an effort aimed at refocusing American education and the actions of the broader community in ways that will help individuals acquire and utilize the knowledge, skills, and attitudes

necessary for each to make work a meaningful, productive, and satisfying part of his or her way of life.

Through one's curricular experiences and individual and group career guidance activities, career education programs in conjunction with academic and vocational education programs should promote, for each individual, knowledge about one's career and self, values related to work, decision-making skills, economic understandings, employment skills, career employability and placement skills and education identity (Herr & Cramer, 1988). Being based upon theory and research in career development, career education programs can infuse subject matter with career development concepts that are related to the likely questions students ask about their personal characteristics and available career opportunities. Career education can address employability issues with an elegant simplicity that helps students develop an individual plan for the future. Therefore, systematically planned career education programs can provide high schools with a comprehensive set of interventions targeted to the goals of helping students become psychologically aware, decisive, fulfilled and economically independent, or, in other words, career mature.

Coupled with career education programs, the high school must offer planned career guidance programs. These programs need to emphasize the importance of developing self-awareness in all persons as a base from which individuals can evaluate the alternatives available to them in subsequent education-work transitions. Career guidance and career education programs stimulate students to consider what is possible, what is reasonable and what is likely for them. These adventures help individuals to deal with the realms of reality, possibility, and probability, and they augment the individual's use of information, techniques and services which are relevant to the alternative choices being considered. These programs help individuals acquire the discipline, commitment, and knowledge required to make realistic and thoughtful decisions, choose a preferred occupation, locate potential employers, and engage in the type of job search and contact behaviors which will lead to satisfying occupational placements and employment success. Of equal developmental importance, they help individuals better prepare to manage their own continuing self-education. In short, career education and career guidance programs help individuals identify and act with more meaningful and purposeful behaviors related to their career development (Herr & Long, 1982).

The Marketplace and Employability

Career education programs in schools are attentive to most career issues of youth in support of their primary—academic or vocational—curricular choice. However, as noted, regardless of the scope of one's educational preparation for work, the realities associated with work itself can bring unanticipated dilemmas. Freeman and Wise (1979) reported that about one-fourth of young employees 18 to 24 years old change jobs within a year. Schein (1968), in writing about the "first job dilemma," found first year occupational behaviors which resulted in loss of motivation, reduction of work efforts, apathy and thoughts of quitting the job, even among college graduates. Such problems need resolution. Assistance in solving these problems can sometimes be found in the workplace and usually with counselors in adult and community career development and placement centers. Astute learners know that their career education must continue on the job. In fact, some skills associated with one's saleability and continuing employability are best taught only after obtaining a job. The type of skill development which emanates from occupational experience probably relates most to one's performance **on the job** and probably less to performance **of the job**. That is to say, specific occupational skills are usually brought to the job when the person is hired. Yet, with appropriate and structured guidance and mentoring assistance, young workers can be helped to acquire many attitudes and skills as well as knowledge related to work adjustment and occupational survival while on the job. Ashley et al. (1980), studied work adaptation problems of males and females from 17 to 30 years of age. They found that worker adaptation problems aggregate in the following five areas:

Performance aspects—involves learning what is expected on the job and how to do the task required.

Organizational aspects—learning where one fits in the organization and the formal and informal rules related to the job.

Interpersonal aspects—learning to adapt to co-workers and supervisors, learning teamwork and how to adjust to disagreeable others, and how to consolidate personal attitudes, values and work styles with those of the occupation.

Responsibility aspects—proving oneself, learning to be responsible for one's success by seizing training opportunities, getting ahead and earning raises.

Affective aspects—learning about and managing ones attitudes and feelings, working hard, developing positive feelings about oneself and one's job performance.

In anticipation of such problems, the high school can help students understand these aspects of the transition to work and the employability skills necessary to successfully negotiate each area.

Planning for Employability Skills in the High School

In this article, we have suggested that employability skills, or saleability skills, can, and indeed should, be provided to all high school students. We have also contended that it is important to consider *saleable skills*, not *a saleable skill*, as the goal for the high school program. We have identified the types of content which are essential to the effective transition and adjustment to work in a period when the occupational structure is undergoing major change from manufacturing to service industries, educational requirements are being raised, and the application of advanced technology in the workplace is pervasive in its elimination of unskilled and semi-skilled jobs. We have also identified some of the perspectives that might be reflected in academic curricula as well as in Vocational Education if employability skills for all students are to be facilitated in the high school. We have suggested that the concepts and processes, subsumed by the term Career Education, represents a useful structure by which to reinforce the provision of employability skills of students regardless of the specific curriculum they occupy.

In the final analysis, however, it is essential that career education or similar approaches to providing students employability/saleability skills must be planned commitments of a high school or they will not be effective in delivering the outcomes sought. Indeed, extensive analysis of effective models of career education indicate that they tend to share several ingredients reported here in slightly altered form from the original:

1. They have administrative support that is visible and continuing.
2. The goals of career education are seen as major commitments of a school district, central to the institutional mission, and to the facilitation of specific behaviors to be attained by graduates.
3. Career education is a planned, integrative dimension of an education setting, not a random add-on or by-product relegated to the

responsibility of only one group of specialists. Representatives of all the groups of educators, industrial personnel, and the community persons affected by and making a contribution to career education are involved in the planning and selected advisory groups are used effectively.

4. Resources are provided for planning and for staff development and these emphases are matters of systematic effort. The planning and the staff development is based on theory and research in career behavior so that there is not only a concern about the "how" of career education but also the "why".
5. Field experiences (whether internships, planned field trips, career shadowing, or something else) are planned to extend and to reinforce curriculum infusion and other career education instruction. They are not independent of the latter. The community is seen as a large learning laboratory and one that has the responsibility to be in partnership with the school creating the most effective educational and occupational opportunities available.
6. Career education is not seen as something so different that the school system, teachers, counselors, and others must start from ground zero. Rather it acknowledges that experiences and academic subject content already in place have career education implications and additional career-relevant emphases can be built on them. Organizational changes are planned and developed to facilitate the career education effort but they are not dramatized as so new as to be threatening to participants.
7. Career education and vocational education are not confused. Career education is seen as for all children, youth, or adults within the education level where it is implemented; it is not confined in its scope to only the development of specific occupational task skills.
8. There is an evaluation process built into the planning and implementation of career education so that its results can be examined and advocated as appropriate to policy-making bodies or other decision-makers (Herr & Cramer, 1988, p. 28).

The issue of whether or not high schools should require a saleable skill for graduation seems to oversimplify the comprehensiveness of the employability skills all students need. In addition, focusing on only one saleable skill, usually interpreted to mean an occupation-specific skill such as keyboarding or masonry, may allow a high school to avoid

dealing with the broader range of employability skills which permit one to search for, choose and adjust to work effectively. These latter general employability skills permit one to transfer among jobs, make career transitions, and be flexible about changes in the workplace. These are skills which are not likely to become obsolete soon. They allow young workers to adapt and be teachable. As such, they should be provided to all students as part of the process of moving toward high school graduation.

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Career Exploration

George W. Johnson

This chapter is written to present: (1) an overview of the career development process; (2) the process for identifying an individual's likes, dislikes, interests, preferences, values, skills, behaviors, aptitudes and goals as they relate to career development; (3) how to approach career exploration as directed by the results of identifying one's likes, dislikes, interests, preferences, values, skills, behaviors, and aptitudes; and (4) the approaches which parents, counselors, and teachers can use to foster career development for today's youth.

There is general agreement that the topic of career development is important. Most state departments of education have minimum requirements for career development. They expect their public schools to meet these requirements by providing students with some degree of vocational assessment, occupational information, and career exploration. However, when faced with the generally accepted observation that the United States is rapidly changing from a manufacturing-based society to a society where more and more jobs are directly involved with information processing and with providing services, today's youth may well need more than this minimum amount of career development in order to plan and prepare for the changes required for both present and emerging occupations.

In an article in a recent issue of *Time*, Gibbs (1989) reflected on the speed of this change by noting that the half-life of most job skills is steadily decreasing, and that most workers do not have the time to learn new job skills, which might allow them to be promoted. Workers expend their available energy just learning the skills they need to know in order to remain qualified for their present job. This lucid observation

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emphasizes the importance of providing students with an adequate opportunity for career development prior to entering the workplace.

An understanding of what career experts generally mean by the term of career development is necessary in order to understand the relationship between and the sequencing of the various steps in the career development process. In the past, career development was characterized by simply asking a high school senior prior to graduation which occupation he/she had chosen to enter. The senior was expected to give an immediate answer to this logical question by instantaneously reviewing all the pertinent personal and occupational information and making the appropriate career decision. However, thanks to the professional efforts of well known researchers in the field of career development such as Holland, Krumboltz, Roe, Super, and Tiedeman, career development has come to be understood as much more than the answer to a single question asked sometime during the senior year of high school.

The division of Career Guidance, directed by David W. Winefordner, is a component of the Appalachia Educational Laboratory (AEL) located in Charleston, West Virginia. Winefordner's staff has reviewed, analyzed, and synthesized the conclusions of the important scholarly work produced in the field of career development. The result of this effort is a description of the career development process which is logical and translatable into a specific sequence of career activities. Much of the information on career development presented in this chapter is based on that work.

One's career and career development begins when the individual first engages in a very general and non-skilled type of work as a child. Career is further characterized by the recognition of the fact that as the individual matures the appropriate selection of work enables him/her to achieve desirable goals which give pleasure and meaning to life. Growing individuals also exhibit an increasing ability to learn what information is necessary for selecting appropriate work and how to learn first the general skills and then the more specific skills required for this work. By definition, career development continues as long as the individual chooses to engage in work, whether it be paid or voluntary.

Many students do not understand the terms work and career and define them quite differently. Work is seen as an activity that must be done in order to make money. It is not seen as either being or having to be meaningful or satisfying but rather as a relentless and unpleasant requirement of life. Career, on the other hand, is seen in a more positive light. Students generally perceive themselves as having the freedom to

choose a career which will provide them with meaning, personal satisfaction, and a higher standard of living. Their definition also includes the notion that they cannot begin their chosen career until they complete all of the prerequisite educational and training requirements. These requirements are often perceived as activities which prevent them from starting their career.

Consequently, most students do not perceive their public school education as being inherently related to their career, but simply as work that they are required to complete. This is a philosophical point, but if students could be made aware of the correct definition of career and if they could be shown that education is a learning process which provides them with skills which are directly related to any chosen career, they could well become more serious about their academic endeavors. If they also were taught that their career probably began for most of them prior to the age of ten when they first provided some service for the family, such as feeding the family pets, making their bed, mowing the grass or setting the dinner table, they could be expected to notice, appreciate, and learn how much of their behavior is involved in their career development.

The general developmental sequence for career development is a process which usually begins with the concept of **self-awareness.** This concept refers to identifying and articulating one's specific likes, dislikes, interests, preferences, values, skills, behaviors, aptitudes, and goals. The composite result of this identification process provides a personal data base from which the individual can make the transition from and into the subsequent step of occupational exploration. The expected result of this exploration is the selection of one or more occupations which are appropriate for this student. The student then identifies the requirements which have to be met for entry into a selected occupation. These requirements usually consist of a set of competencies or skills which must be learned, and one or more credentials which must be earned. The final activity in the sequence is to develop a career plan for entering the selected occupation. This plan is basically an outline of the activities which are required to learn the competencies and to receive the credentials for entry into the selected occupation. Further activities, including locating a job, writing a resumé, and interviewing, can be scheduled now that the selected occupation has been identified. Through these activities, the student logically expects to reach his/her career goal or goals.

A general developmental axiom states that an individual can be expected to behave in the future in the same manner as they have behaved in the past. In addition, this individual will continue to seek the same life goals in the future that they identified in the past. For example, ex-convicts are perceived by most people as though they were still criminals even after they completed their prison terms. This perception of "once a criminal always a criminal" is strengthened by the high recidivism rate among released prisoners. The impact of this rule on career development conveys the idea that career goals, which are chosen when the individual is a student, may well remain as career goals in their adulthood. Other goals may be added as the student becomes an adult, but these goals will be consistent with the ones chosen as a student. However, with this rule, as with most other rules, there are exceptions. Restating this rule with its exception notes that future behavior and goals are consistent with past behavior and goals unless the individual encounters some event which is significant enough to intervene and affect the basis of their present behavior. Near death experiences, loss of a job, encountering unknown career information or the accidental death of a loved one are but a few examples of such events.

When an individual does change his/her life goals and subsequent behavior as a result of this intervening event, their career goals may change also. The new career goals reflect alterations in the individual's self-awareness data base especially in the area of values, which in turn may require the selection of a different occupation to meet these new career goals. This new occupation may or will require a change in the individual's career plan to reflect the new competencies to be learned and additional credentials to be earned. Once a student learns the career developmental process and understands the requirements and sequence for the major steps of self-awareness, occupation exploration, occupation selection, and development of the career plan, he/she will be prepared and should be able to successfully execute this process whenever required to do so.

Probably the most widely used set of aptitudes are those developed by the U.S. Department of Labor. Of these aptitudes, the most widely used are listed with their definition in the following statements (AEL, 1980, pp. 484-485).

> **G – General:** Understanding instructions, facts, and underlying reasonings. Being able to reason and make judgments. Closely related to school achievement.

V – Verbal: Understanding meanings of words and ideas. Using them to present information or ideas clearly.

N – Numerical: Doing arithmetic operations quickly and correctly.

S – Spatial: Looking at flat drawings of objects and forming mental images of them in three dimensions—height, width, and depth.

P – Form Perception: Observing details in objects or drawings. Noticing differences in shapes or shading.

Q – Clerical Perception: Observing details and recognizing errors in numbers, spelling, and punctuation in written materials, charts, and tables. Avoiding errors when copying materials.

K – Motor Coordination: Using eyesight and coordinating the movement of hands and fingers to perform a task rapidly and correctly.

F – Finger Dexterity: Moving the hands with ease and skill. Working with the hands in placing and turning motion.

Goals may be defined in several ways. One common definition is that goals are values projected into the future (AEL, 1980). Consequently, students can be helped to formulate goals if they can become aware of their present values. Also, answering open ended sentence stems such as "I want to be...", "I want to have...", "I want to do..." or "I want to continue..." can help students formulate goal statements.

Since likes, dislikes, interests, preferences, values, skills, behaviors, attitudes and goals comprise a significant part of the individual's career data base, teaching students to discern, observe, and evaluate these is a most important career development activity. Otherwise the personal data base is incomplete or is not available for conscious use. Consequently, any decision made with a limited data base will not be the best one the individual could make.

Students can be directed toward self-awareness by an assessment process which results in a cross-sectional measurement of the student's personal history. Cross-sectional measurement is a psychological term which means the measurement of one or more variables at a specified time. The assessment process may take different formats, but they all have in common the intent of discerning and presenting information

about the individual which can be used in career exploration and decision-making.

One approach (AEL, 1980) requests that students list activities in which they have engaged. These activities are grouped into four categories: (1) occupations; (2) education; (3) civic and community; and (4) home and family. The occupations category would include part-time work at an animal shelter or as a bag boy in a grocery store. Planning to work as a camp counselor in the coming summer or planning to mow yards and do associated general landscaping work all summer also would be included in this category. Information which should be included in the education category would be: (1) the courses being taken in school which are most enjoyable; (2) any elective courses the student chooses to take; and (3) any other applicable educational activity such as tutoring other students. Civic and community activities would include participating in the March of Dimes fund drive, forming a "Just Say No To Drugs" club, and helping to coach a little league baseball or soccer team. The activities which would belong in the home and family category include taking younger brothers and sisters on outings to places like the zoo, the park, or the movies, or being responsible for feeding the family pets, or washing and servicing the family car.

Another assessment procedure would utilize the personal interview and evaluation instruments to measure appropriate likes, dislikes, interests, skills, preferences, values, behaviors, aptitudes and goals. The result of this assessment could take the form of a written report which would include the results of the interview and the test scores.

Assessment Report

Likes and Dislikes: Information in this category could be gained in the interview by asking selective questions based on the Worker Qualification Profile (AEL, 1988b) as well as any other specific likes and dislikes the individual can identify.

Interests: Information in this category can be obtained by using commercially developed paper and pencil interest survey instruments (i.e., the Career Assessment Inventory, the Kuder General Interest Survey, the Self-Directed Search, the Strong-Campbell Interest Inventory, etc.). Interactive computer programs such as DISCOVER and CHOICES also provide appropriate information.

Values: The Values Scale (VS) and Study of Values are two examples of assessment instruments which will provide information on the individual's values.

Skills: The Eureka Skills Inventory can provide appropriate information about the individual's choice of skills and how interested he/she is in using these skills.

Aptitudes: There are several ways to assess aptitudes. One is the self-assessment (AEL, 1988b). A second method is to use pencil and paper tests such as the Differential Aptitude Test (DAT) or the Armed Services Vocational Aptitude Battery (ASVAB).

Preferences and Behavior: The Myers-Briggs Type Indicator and behavioral self-report forms can help identify how a person chooses to spend his/her time, what activities are chosen consistently, the frequency, duration, and latency of personal behavior, and how the individual relates to others in a social context.

Goals: Information in this category can be obtained from a personal interview with the student.

Once the student has received and understands this assessment, the information becomes that person's career awareness data base. This data base is not static but remains dynamic and continually changes as the person learns new behaviors, accumulates additional knowledge, and is involved in new experiences. With this career awareness data base, the student is ready to begin career exploration. In recent years the term career exploration has come to be synonymous with the steps in the career development process called occupational exploration and occupational selection which were identified and described in the preceding discussion of career development.

An important inherent component of career development and particularly of career exploration is the decision-making process. A procedure for making decisions, which is easily applied throughout the career development process, is comprised of four sequential steps: (1) identifying the decision to be made; (2) determining the criterion or standards the decision should meet; (3) listing all the possible alternatives which could be solutions to this decision; and (4) deciding which alternative best meets the established criterion (AEL, 1980).

To illustrate this procedure consider the situation a college freshman faces as he/she prepares to attend college for the first time. One of the many questions that will need to be answered is where should this student live. In this example, the assumption is made that there are a few limited choices available to the student. The decision statement may be

identified by asking, "Where would this student most like to live during the fall semester of their freshman year?" Notice that the decision statement gives the choice to the student, not, for example, to the parents. If this decision were to be made by the parents, the statement would have to be rephrased to read, "Where would the parents most want this child to live?"

Next the student would be expected to determine the criterion or characteristics which are considered to be the most important in selecting the best place to live. The quality and quantity of criterion will reflect the degree of self-awareness the student has achieved. These criterion should be listed in rank order in terms of importance to the student. The female student in this example has identified these criteria: (1) one roommate; (2) separate bedrooms; (3) a kitchen; (4) a private telephone; and (5) top floor. The available alternatives for this student to consider are: (1) a girl's dorm; (2) a boarding house; (3) an apartment; (4) a mobile home; and (5) a sorority house.

When the student applied for university housing, the only available rooms were on the top floor of a girl's dormitory. All these rooms were suites which slept three people and had kitchen facilities. The two telephones which were available were used by everyone on the floor. The three-story boardinghouse had a living arrangement for two girls on the bottom floor which included separate bedrooms and a shared living room and study area. There was a private telephone, but there were no kitchen facilities. The apartment which was available was on the second floor of a four-story apartment building and was designed with one bedroom for two people. It included a private telephone and kitchen facilities. The mobile home was located adjacent to the university, had two bedrooms, kitchen facilities, and a private telephone. The sorority house had one room available on the top floor which slept two people. Kitchen facilities were available, but the only telephone available was used by all of the sorority sisters.

This decision can now be represented in a graphic format (Figure 1) which permits a visual and cognitive comparison of each alternative to each of the criterion. A plus (+) indicates that the alternative meets the criterion and a minus (-) denotes a failure to meet the criterion. A visual review of this chart reveals that the mobile home is the most desirable alternative.

The traditional way this decision could have been made is to have the student visit each of these alternatives and evaluate them on whatever conscious or unconscious criteria was operating at the time. With this

DECISION GOAL	CRITERIA					
To select the best place for me to live during my freshman year at college	1	2	3	4	5	
ALTERNATIVE	one roommate	separate bedrooms	kitchen facilities	private telephone	top floor	**OPTION SELECTED**
1. Girls's dorm	-	-	+	-	+	
2. Boarding house	+	+	-	+	-	
3. Apartment	+	-	+	+	-	
4. Mobile home	+	+	+	+	+	
5. Sority house	+	-	+	-	+	

Figure 1. Decision Making Model

approach more than likely the criteria would have been different for each alternative. The four-step model recommended by AEL (1980) directs the student to identify and rank order the criterion which will have to be satisfied before ever visiting the alternatives. This ensures that each alternative will be compared to the same criteria. If the parents had been selecting the place for their daughter to live, they would have undoubtedly used different criteria. Therefore, the decision statement must identify not only the decision to be made, but also the individual who is to be the decision maker.

An excellent guide for career exploration is the booklet entitled *Activities for Individualized Career Exploration* (ACE) (AEL, 1989). This is a structured career exploration program which is a succinct and cogent example of combining the developmental approach and the decision-making model. With this program the student begins exploring the world of occupations at a very general level and moves toward a specific occupational choice. Exploration means that the student needs to and will encounter a considerable body of information with which he/she is unfamiliar. Most students will require time to process this information and to make decisions which require an understanding of this information.

The ACE uses the *Guide to Occupational Exploration* (GOE) (U.S. Employment Services, 1979) which has arranged occupations into various groupings. This system is developmental in nature and begins with the general category of Career Areas of which there are twelve. These career areas are made more specific by being sub-divided into sixty-six Worker Trait Groups (WTG). Finally, each of the 12,000 plus occupations is appropriately assigned to its respective WTG.

The following discussion of the procedure and charts in the AISC (AEL, 1989) is a conceptual description of the various sections of the program. The actual charts and instructions are much more complete and detailed. The student begins the AISC (AEL, 1989) by completing the WTG Selection Chart (Figure 2). On this chart the criteria are: (1) explored interest, (2) work activities, and (3) work situations. To determine "expressed interest" the student uses his/her personal career data base and chooses one or more of the twelve career areas: (01) artistic; (02) scientific; (03) nature; (04) authority; (05) mechanical; (06) industrial; (07) business detail; (08) persuasive; (09) accommodating; (10) humanitarian; (11) social-business; and (12) physical performing in which he/she has the strongest interest. The student continues by choosing the most interesting of the following ten work

DECISION GOAL	CRITERIA			
To select the WTG's which best meet the expressed interest and choices of WA's and WS's	EXPRESSED INTERESTS	WORK ACTIVITIES	WORK SITUATIONS	OPTION SELECTED FOR FURTHER EXPLORATION
ALTERNATIVES				
WTG #...	+	+	+	
WTG #...	+	-	+	
WTG #...	-	-	-	
WTG #...	+	+	+	
WTG #...	-	+	+	
WTG #...	+	-	-	
WTG #...	+	+	+	

Figure 2. WTG Selection Chart

activities: (1) activities dealing with things and objects; (2) activities involving business contract; (3) activities of a routine, definite, organized nature; (4) activities involving direct personal contact to help or instruct others; (5) activities that bring recognition and appreciation from others; (6) activities involving the communication of ideas and information; (7) activities of a scientific and technical nature; (8) activities involving creative thinking; (9) activities involving processes, methods, or machines; and (10) activities involving working on or producing things.

Then the student is asked to choose the most interesting work situations after reading the description of each of the following ten work situations: (1) performing duties which change frequently; (2) performing routine tasks; (3) planning and directing an entire activity; (4) dealing with people; (5) influencing people's opinions, attitudes, and judgments; (6) working under pressure; (7) making decisions using personal judgments; (8) making decisions using standards that can be measured or checked; (9) interpreting and expressing feelings, ideas, or facts; and (10) working with precise limits or standards of accuracy.

The criteria on the WTG Selection Chart are the student's choices of interest areas, work activities, and work situations. The alternatives are the 66 WTG's. When this chart has been completed, the student is able to identify the WTG's which he/she should consider for further exploration as these WTG's are the ones most directly related to his/her interests. The WTG Selection Chart reflects career development because the student progresses from general knowledge (Career Area) to specific knowledge (WTG), and the choices the student has made on this chart should reflect his/her understanding of their respective personal career data base.

The student is now prepared to enter information on the WTG Exploration Chart (Figure 3). The criteria for this chart are: (1) aptitudes and (2) selected occupational information for each WTG. The alternatives are the WTG's identified for further exploration on the WTG Selection Chart.

The student determines his/her criterion by first following the instructions for completing a self-assessment for the nine aptitudes which were previously discussed (AEL, 1988b). Secondly, the students read the *WTG Guide* (AEL, 1989) to determine their interest in the occupational information about each WTG as described in the following categories: (1) the work performed; (2) the skills and abilities required; (3) the educational preparation needed; and (4) the working conditions

DECISION GOAL	CRITERIA		
To select the WTG's (from Figure 2) whose description most interests me and my aptitudes best match	APTITUDES	DESCRIPTION	OPTION SELECTED
ALTERNATIVES			
WTG #...	+	-	
WTG #...	-	+	
WTG #...	+	+	

Figure 3. WTG Exploration Chart

and physical demands which will be encountered. After marking their choices with the plus (+) and minus (-) signs, the student will decide which of the WTG's still interests him/her. Their decision is also registered on this chart.

The student is now ready to explore specific occupations. For each WTG selected for further exploration on the WTG Exploration Chart, the student will find a list of occupations at the end of each WTG section in the *WTG Guide* (AEL, 1989). For each of the occupations chosen for further exploration, the student will need to have access to the four major sources of occupational information (AEL, 1980). These sources are: (1) media, which includes printed material (i.e., the *Dictionary of Occupational Titles*, the *Occupational Outlook Handout*, the *Encyclopedia of Careers*, occupational briefs, flyers, pamphlets, etc.) and audio-visual presentations (i.e., video tapes, movies, slides, etc.); (2) personal observations such as field trips and shadowing; (3) personal interviews with workers; and (4) direct work experience.

At this point the ACE (AEL, 1989) has helped identify those WTG's in which the student can expect to find the occupations in which he/she has the best opportunity to be satisfied and successful. Now the student's success in further career exploration will depend primarily upon: (1) the availability of occupational information; (2) how well the student is able to use the available occupational information; and (3) the payoff each student perceives he/she will receive from spending time collecting and evaluating this occupational information.

The quality and quantity of occupational information will depend upon the resources the school system and the community choose to expend. The counselor is the school's professional with the expertise to identify and recommend the appropriate occupational materials and should work with the school librarian to make this occupational information easily accessible and usable. However, for this occupational information to be useful, the students need to be taught how to use these materials. Consequently, the counselor must know the type and extent of occupational information in each resource as well as how these sources interface. Prior to doing research in the occupational resources the student should be given a structured format for organizing and collecting the relevant data. One such format entitled "Occupational Information Summary" (AEL, 1980, p. 124) includes the categories labeled: (1) specific work performed; (2) specific skills performed; (3) work setting; (4) employment outlook; (5) advancement opportunities; (6) education, training and other entry requirements; (7) other personal qualifications;

and (8) rewards. Regardless of the source of occupational information being used, the student should be taught to use this summary form as an "advanced organizer" such that the relevant and important data can be discerned and recorded as it is encountered.

After examining all of the available occupational information, the student can utilize an additional WTG Chart (Figure 4), (AEL, 1980, ETG Chart #3) to decide which occupation best provides what the student expects from his/her career. In this decision the criteria are the values which the student identifies in the self-assessment procedure. The alternatives are the occupations on which the student chooses to gather occupational information. Completing this chart enables the student to decide which occupation best meets his/her values and will serve as a career goal for the career plan.

The student is ready now to prepare a career plan which will identify the sequence of activities, the necessary resources, and the timeframe required to learn the competencies and obtain the credentials required for this occupation (AEL, 1980, p. 96). The student will have to make many decisions in the development of this career plan which should affect their choice of summer and part-time work, the selection of academic courses in high school, and which post-secondary educational institution he/she should attend. If the occupational choice is appropriate and the career plan well designed and implemented, the student should be able to reach his/her career goal.

This career plan should also include the timing for learning how to locate appropriate jobs, to complete resumes, and to interact during an interview. Once the occupational choice has been clarified and the career goal stated, these activities become appropriate and meaningful to the student.

Students report that their parents have the greatest influence and provide the most help in their career planning (Birk, 1979; Burke & Weir, 1979; Johnson, 1983; Mitchell, 1978; Roberts, 1979). Even though parents would like to fulfill their role more effectively, there is little information available to assist them (Osguthorpe, 1976). However, parents who used the Partners Program, which consisted of the "Parent Career Guidance Manual" (Cochran, 1985b) and three workbooks—"Activity Self-Exploration Workbook" (Cochran & Amundson, 1985), "Career Grid Workbook" (Cochran, 1985a), and "Planning Workbook" (Cochran, 1985c)—were effective in fostering the career development of their children (Palmer & Cochran, 1988). Even though no research has been done to determine how effective parents

could be using the ACE (AEL, 1989), the instructions in the ACE (AEL, 1989) are very readable and parents should be able to assist their children in completing this particular structural program.

Palmer and Cochran (1988) suggest that, even though counselors can offer group career programs in interest testing, computer interactions and so forth, parents could be available to help their children sort out ideas, information, values and so on. Consequently, counselors should consider offering career development workshops for parents which will help them understand how they can facilitate the career development of their children.

Counselors can conduct effective career planning programs (Fulkerson, 1981). Consequently, the onus is on counselors to be leaders in providing the opportunities which are necessary to facilitate career development such that every student has developed an appropriate career plan by the time he/she graduates from high school. There are two new resources which counselors should consult if they provide or wish to select test instruments and/or career software programs for career testing and computerized career guidance. *A Counselor's Guide to Career Assessment Instruments* (Kapes & Mastie, 1988) provides the information necessary to assist counselors in selecting the most appropriate test instruments for use with their students. The *Counseling Software Guide* (Walz & Bleuer, 1989) provides descriptions and reviews of computer software to help counselors in choosing the most effective computer programs for their students to use.

Teachers were the third group of people (counselors were the second) group from whom students reported they sought career advice (Johnson, 1988). In the classroom, teachers can participate in the career development process by identifying the occupations which require knowledge of their subject matter and by suggesting appropriate occupations for the students to consider.

The career development process beginning with self-awareness and ending with a developed career plan has been presented so that the total scope of career exploration can be understood. Whenever the results of an interest survey are discussed with the student, he/she may be tempted to select an occupation from those listed on a score sheet or a printout and may conclude that there is no need to do any further career exploration. In this situation, the student is not involved in the decision-making process and did not have the benefit of any occupational information and never developed a career plan. Consequently, the career exploration process is still incomplete.

Likewise, the student may perceive that a complete assessment procedure provides all the career information one needs to select an occupation. Once again the student has made no decisions, has not utilized any career information, and has not developed a career plan.

Career exploration is learned and developmental. The process occurs over time and requires that students move from general knowledge to specific knowledge about themselves and the career information which they must learn how to use in developing a personal career plan. The argument has been made that since career development represents a "Gestalt," just providing students with a few parts will never produce a whole.

A high school graduation speaker was heard to say that there are three important choices students have to make in life, and they are: (1) determining one's philosophical stance on life; (2) selecting a mate; and (3) choosing an occupation (Holt, 1953). These choices should not be left to chance; hence, society needs to understand that the information on which to base these choices must be available, must be learned, and must generate a personal commitment through the decision-making process.

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DECISION GOAL	CRITERIA	OPTION SELECTED FOR CAREER
To select the occupation from WTG Exploration Chart (Figure 3) which best meets my values	VALUES	
WTG-D		
Occupation #1	-	
Occupation #2	+	

Figure 4. Decision Making Model

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Preparing Youth for Changing Roles and Tasks in Society, Work, and Family

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Introduction

An examination of the status of career guidance and counseling in American schools today reveals that the field is experiencing a resurgence of interest. After an active decade of career guidance conceptual development in the 60's, of career education programs in the '70's, and diminished career development emphasis in schools in the 80's (effects of the "back to the basics" educational reform movement), there seems to be renewed interest in career guidance programs and career counseling. It should be noted that students and their parents consistently place career needs among their highest priorities.

Recent guidelines for developmental career guidance programs offer a somewhat broadened base for creating and improving career services to students. The basic assumption of many programs appears to be the traditional one: that the primary outcome of such services is a vocational choice, and that a wise choice can be determined and implemented by obtaining a sufficient amount of self, occupational, and job search information. While it goes without saying that occupational/educational information is an important part of the career planning process—especially when an individual is at a choice or decision point and seeking placement—it is our position that this information is not

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sufficient, even when delivered by the sophisticated computer-assisted career information and guidance systems currently available.

It is also our position that, although some of the theories of career development define career more broadly as life roles and theaters (Super, 1957; 1980) and as the roles, settings and events of a person's life (Gysbers & Henderson, 1988), and career development as self development, taking into account multipotentialities, gender roles, and social change (Hansen & Tennyson, 1975; Hansen, 1978); these theory-based frameworks have not yet been mainstreamed into practical programs in the schools. Although they represent a developmental perspective on careers, they still focus primarily on the work role and only minimally on other life roles.

It is posited here that new career development programs in the schools must take into account new knowledge about human development and career development and global and societal change if they are to adequately prepare youth for the realities which face them in the last decade of the century. The purpose of this chapter is to discuss changes in individuals, families, workplaces, and career development theories, and to offer a framework for a new paradigm in career guidance and counseling which is contextual, integrative, and holistic in nature.

The World We Live In

Global Changes

The first issue of *Time* magazine for 1989 called attention to the global issues facing the nation by naming, not a woman or man of the year, but "planet of the year." The entire magazine was devoted to alarming environmental issues which have begun only recently to claim public attention, such as the greenhouse effect producing even warmer global temperatures, the deterioration of the ozone layer, acid rain, and the threat of increasing forms of pollution. The oil spill in Alaska provides grim evidence of the reality of this concern.

In *The Rapids of Change* (1987), futurist Robert Theobald identifies major global trends which create value dilemmas, such as the dramatic developments in weaponry, computers, and robotics, human rights, migration, biomedical engineering, and environment. He suggests that society is in a critical "paradigm shift"—a point in time in which major new solutions are needed to solve old problems. His proposal is that

individuals must creatively work together to find solutions to these problems, that we must all become "social entrepreneurs," whom he describes as people willing to take risks to improve the quality of life for all.

Over the last decade others have presented a similar call, notably Ferguson (1980), author and social critic, and Capra (1982), a physicist. Ferguson suggested at the beginning of the '80's that society already is in a paradigm shift and that people are creatively "breathing together" to find constructive ways to change what they are doing—in medicine, religion, education, and other fields—and that out of personal change will come social change. Capra challenged his own field of physics by suggesting that the old way of viewing the universe—the competitive, mechanistic, fragmented Newtonian/Des Cartesian system of breaking society into small parts—is being replaced by a new view of reality which is more cooperative, integrated, and holistic.

We believe that these larger views have a great deal to do with the career development and career guidance of youth, for they speak to the kind of future for which we are preparing young people today. We suggest that this global framework, combined with the changes which are occurring in American society, require us to identify and develop a new paradigm in the field of career guidance, i.e., new ways to guide and counsel young men and women about their roles, tasks, barriers, and opportunities in a dramatically changing society. Among the most salient changes are those of economic inequalities, family patterns, work environments, roles of men and women, work ethics, and attitudes toward stability and change.

In the remainder of this chapter these changes will be briefly discussed, the traditional ways of providing vocational/career guidance will be reviewed, and a model will be introduced which offers a new paradigm to add to the "tried and true" ways of delivering career guidance. As American schools begin to move toward more systematic developmental guidance programs, including major emphases on career guidance, it seems imperative that the programs be built on broader, more holistic and integrative views of human development, career development, and societal and global change. We introduce one model for this approach—one we call Integrative Life Planning (Hansen, 1988)—and include practical applications for counselors and educators as influencers of young people from childhood through late adolescence. We recognize, of course, that career development occurs over the life span, but limit our discussion here primarily to school-based programs.

Societal Changes

Few would disagree that American society is experiencing exponential changes. The dream of democracy—of full development of human potential, equal opportunity, and social and economic justice—seems somewhat distant and shattered as we see the emergence of a new "underclass" including the homeless, minorities, child mothers doomed to poverty, and dislocated workers and homemakers. Continuing signs of sexism and emergence of a new racism in educational institutions and work places punctuate the seriousness of our task as we contemplate how we as counselors, educators, and career specialists can bring our talents to bear on finding solutions to these problems.

Among the changes, young people are learning that they may not have the same standard of living that their parents had; computers, robots, and technology are creating a society of greater complexity, isolation, and loneliness; and traditions are being replaced by transitions and transformations. The awareness and activities of older persons are tempered by a recognition that discrimination based on aging has given us the newest"ism"–ageism. New immigrant populations, especially Hispanic and Southeast Asian, remind us that cultural diversity is one of the most dominant characteristics of our society and that providing for individual differences and advocacy for those outside the opportunity structure is still a major task of the schools. These changes are extremely important to the field of career development.

Family Pattern Changes

We have known for a long time that family patterns are changing. Messages from the media—newspapers, magazines, television and radio—emphasize an apparent concern that current changes in our society may be weakening the family structure. Some fear that traditional family values are eroding with the growth of female-headed families, increases in the number of children in poverty, and increases in the number of children born out of wedlock (Levitan, Belous, & Gallo, 1988). There is little doubt that serious problems accompany these changes, most of them having to do with children's care and safety, feminization of poverty, and limited education and training opportunities. One of the most striking changes is that the traditional nuclear family—with mother home, father employed, and two children—comprises only 10% of American family patterns. Indeed, as of 1980, the two-earner family

became the dominant family pattern with 50% of families in this type (Bernard, 1981). Today the percentage has grown to 54%.

Increasing diversity exists in contemporary family patterns, including single persons as family heads by choice, gay-lesbian families, and the single parent family (26%), which is most often headed by a minority woman living in poverty (Women, Public Policy, and Development Project, 1987). Another family pattern is evidenced in the extended family with two or three generations living together, sharing incomes, as well as care of child and kin. Blended families represent another pattern wherein two divorced or widowed partners bring children together into a new family. It is clear that today there is no such entity as "*the* family," with families comprising all shapes and sizes.

As discussed in Hansen and Minor (1989), whatever the family pattern, the family unit functions as a system greatly influencing the members' self concepts, life roles, goals, and choices. The family can be one of the main sources of moral and spiritual development, and the communication center for issues related to life skills, values, ethics, learning, relating, and working. Another role of the family is that of preparation for adulthood, learning work values, educational values, family values, and cultural values. The family imparts attitudes about gender roles and rules regarding what is appropriate and inappropriate behavior for women and men. In addition, the family can function as the system wherein sex-role expectations become linked with occupations and images of what the "good, healthy adult" will be like. The family is the garden where attitudes about work and family are planted, nurtured, and modeled.

Labor Market and Workplace Changes

These global, societal, and familial transitions interact with changes in the labor market and workplace, and ways in which the workplace is changing or is projected to change are well-documented in the career development, occupational information, vocational psychology, and organizational development literature. More people are employed in the U.S. than ever before with over 115.5 million people in the civilian labor force in 1985 and an expected increase to 129 million by 1995 (Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1986).

We are well aware of statistics from *Workforce 2000* (Johnston & Packer, 1987) which projects that 80% of new workers from 1989 to 2000 will be women and immigrant minorities. The figures on women's

participation in paid work continues to increase: by 2000, women are expected to comprise 47% of the labor force; 80% of women 25-34 will be in the paid work force. In 1988, two-thirds of all women with children under 18 were working in the labor force; 53% of mothers with children under age three are in the labor force; 25% of mothers of pre-schoolers not in the work force say they would work if they had access to safe and affordable childcare (Women, Work and the Future, 1989). The average woman is expected to work (for pay) for 30 years of her life.

Other projections are that 90% of new jobs will be in the service sector, reinforcing the low-wage, sex-segregated "pink collar ghetto" in which most women work. Part-time or temporary employment will increase, and, in spite of considerable progress, women continue to work in training programs that prepare them for low-wage jobs in traditional female occupations.

Men and women are also finding that the workplace is changing in other ways. Some larger companies are creating human resource development programs. Recognizing human needs, they are offering their workers programs of employee assistance, career development, tuition assistance, flex-time, child-care, maternal and paternal leave, multiple benefits, and the like. They are also finding that some employers are attending to the "24-hour person" in recognizing, perhaps for the first time, that work is not the only part of a person's life. On the other side, some workers are "plateauing" and finding "up is not the only way" as the career ladder flattens, and there is no more room at the top. Lateral moves are becoming more common and corporations are developing task forces on work and family, giving some cognizance to the fact that adults of all ages place family on a higher priority than work. A recent Gallup poll (1987) and several international studies indicate that, for many adults, family is a higher value than work (although many of our workplace and societal structures do not allow most of us to act on that priority).

In addition, there is a definite pattern emerging of more frequent job changes in one's career development. For example, the findings of the Gallup survey (1987), conducted for the National Career Development Association, included the statistic that only 63% of the workers expected to stay in their current job over the next 3 years. Approximately 4.5% of the workforce expects to be forced to seek other employment due to business closings, and over 20% expect to change jobs by choice. The bottom line is that nearly 28 million workers expect to change jobs

within three years. Underlying causes of these career changes included job stress (45%), conflict between work and family or personal life (33%), lack of motivation (7%), and lack of ability utilization (12%). In addition, the Gallup survey suggested that either poor quality, or complete lack of any career planning were important contributing variable to consider in these career changes.

Gender Role Changes

Americans are used to classifying people in many ways. Interestingly, the early career development literature gave little attention to male and female similarities and differences in career development. Most of the literature was based on studies of men, and the studies of women focused on comparing homemakers and role-innovators (those who chose "nontraditional" occupations) (Hansen & Rapoza, 1978). Similarly, few career programs which were developed attended to the differential career socialization of women and men.

With hundreds of programs funded under several Federal projects during the '70's (Civil Rights, Women's Educational Equity Act, Vocational Education), sex equity became a common term, and numerous studies and interventions were developed to facilitate career development of girls and women. A few, such as BORN FREE (Hansen, 1978), for the first time linked career development (of *both* men and women) with sex-role socialization and social change.

Along with career development, sex equity programs in the schools were diminished in the '80's, although there has been steady development of special career programs and centers for adult women. The emphasis in the '80's has been on "Learners at Risk," with interventions often crisis-based for at-risk youth (especially chemically dependent, economically disadvantaged, pregnant teenage girls and minorities) rather than preventive, developmental programs.

In 1987 a landmark book was published, clearly establishing that career development of women is a unique field of study. Betz and Fitzgerald (1987) in The *Career Psychology of Women* review research on women's career development over the past 20 years. It is startling to learn that one of the major barriers to career development of women continues to be the societal attitude that the roles of worker and mother are incompatible. The old role conflict message is still there, communicating to many young women that they cannot be workers and mothers too (in spite of the fact that 53% of women today are fulfilling both roles

though often not without overload and exhaustion). Many recent studies of sex role attitudes of adolescents have drawn similar conclusions (Hedin, Erickson, Simon, & Walker, 1985; Tittle, 1982; McBean, 1986; Herzog & Bachman, 1982). While girls and boys may see more opportunities open to them, they are ambivalent in their feelings about choosing new options. Many young women may feel they can do many things, but they also believe that a "Prince Charming" will come along to take care of them. In general, attitudes of young women have changed faster than those of young men, but both sexes tend to expect men to work full-time and still have stereotypic notions about sex-typing of occupations. One conclusion is that there is a large discrepancy between what adolescents believe society is like and what the society is really like, especially in relation to the roles of men and women.

Women increasingly have moved into occupations formerly dominated by men (e.g., medicine, engineering, law, business, sales) though the pay differential continues, and it is important to continue to encourage young women to explore these and other fields in order to make available wider options. The incentives for males to enter female-dominated fields are lacking due to the lower prestige and salary of these positions; thus this shift has not occurred as noticeably. However, they also should have opportunity to choose nontraditional careers. What this suggests to us is that new career guidance programs must address the changing roles of women and men in a central way and that the topics must be addressed not only as "women's issues" but as issues of men and women seeking to discover, develop, and use their talents to solve societal problems.

Changes in Theoretical Models

Super (1957) defined career development as a continuous, lifelong process of developing and implementing a self-concept with satisfaction to self and benefit to society. This concept states that career is more than occupation, is a sequence of positions, and includes roles and theaters of a person's life, as expressed in his rainbow (1980). He also acknowledged that women's career patterns differ from those of men. While his theory gives a broader framework for viewing career, it has been difficult to operationalize the concepts in our career counseling and career development practice.

Concern has been expressed related to traditional theories being based on male models, developed with male subjects, and then, later

applied to women. Richardson (1981) called for "an expanded concept of career" and called attention to the intersection between work and family—how work affects family and how family affects work. She clearly articulated her theoretical view that work and family roles of men and women need to be studied in the perspective of reciprocity, mutual influence, mutual causality, and role interaction.

New career development models need to complement the traditional trait and factor approach with a broader, more integrative approach. Even the most broadly based theory, such as Super's, focuses heavily on the work role. If family is to assume as important a priority as most Americans say they want it to have, there must be a work-family component integrated into theories. Emerging theories such as those developed by Astin (1984), Farmer (1985), Hackett and Betz (1981), and Gottfredson (1981), which incorporate components of sex-role socialization, structure of opportunity, work motivation, and reproductive roles of women, need to be considered in addition to the traditional models. New literature on the changing psychology of men also needs to be integrated, such as male role conflict (Skovholt, 1986), emotional expressiveness (Moore, 1984), men and fathering (Merton, 1986), male career development (Skovholt & Morgan, 1981), black male development (Lee & Lindsey, 1987), and male sex-role strain. It becomes apparent that preparing youth for major life roles—to learn (education), to love (family), to labor (work), and to engage in leisure in a changing society—is a major function of developing the whole person (Hansen & Minor, 1989).

Family and Work Linkages

These findings bring us to an important link between work roles and family roles: 33% of the males and females in the Gallup survey stated that they experienced a great deal of conflict between their work and their families or personal relationships. This percentage represents 35,970,000 Americans (Hansen & Minor, 1989). The social changes in family patterns and in the work environment are creating real pressures and stressors that indicate the need for employers and for our society to restructure work to support families and relationships more than it does currently. In addition, 75% of the respondents stated that their personal relationships were more important than work. Clearly, this shows even greater the need for employers to support these relationships.

A review of the literature on family-career connections (Miller, 1984) indicates that the link is becoming increasingly important as more women are entering the labor force; both family and career can be viewed from a developmental perspective to explore fluctuations in role demands on individual family members; both women and men can derive satisfaction from combining participation in career and family roles; and both men and women, because of the influence of traditional sex roles, need information and support to feel comfortable with nontraditional career and family roles.

Factors Affecting Family and Work

Role Socialization. Chetwynd and Hartnett (1978) describe the sex-role system as the network of attitudes, feelings, and behaviors resulting from the pervasiveness of sex-role stereotyping in a culture. Socialization is defined as the process wherein the behaviors, roles, attitudes and beliefs are passed on from one generation to another. The socialization agents, including the family, hold stereotypic beliefs about what are sex-appropriate characteristics. The changes we discuss here in both work and family are resulting in changing roles for men and women, and these role changes need to be considered in career planning. We are in a time of a constant redefining of roles and relationships among women and men across cultures. Women are adjusting to new roles as achievers, while men are making adjustments with new role expectations as nurturers.

In addition, there are racial, ethnic, and class differences in role definitions and these differences may provide barriers which need addressing in the life planning process as well. Persons with emotional, physical, or mental disabilities have special barriers to face in trying to obtain satisfying jobs and fulfilling their life roles. They face many of the same work and family issues but their struggle with these issues is compounded by negative social expectations based upon their differences, and these barriers are additional factors for consideration in a holistic career planning program.

Sociological Influences. As discussed in Hansen and Minor (1989), socioeconomic factors have a powerful effect on our career decisions and planning. Some differences also appear to exist in attitudes toward work and family roles related to socioeconomic status. For example, blue collar families may be more likely to have traditional role expectations, i.e., if the wife works outside the home, her job generally will be

considered subordinate. Physicians' families also tend to be more traditional in adopting the male single-provider model (Mortimer and London, 1985). Geographic location also can influence how one views work and family roles. Today both farm families and urban families are faced with major economic, social, psychological, and family issues as they confront problems of dislocation and job loss.

A New Paradigm: Integrative Life Planning

In the early 1980's the "back to the basics" educational reform movement resulted in a diminishing interest in career guidance programs. However, there is a definite increasing interest evident for the 1990's with the National Career Development Guidelines (1988), published by the National Occupational Information Coordinating Committee (NOICC), and endorsed by the American Association for Counseling and Development (AACD), and designed to support the improvement of existing career planning programs. These guidelines focus on three areas for student and client competency in life planning: Self-Knowledge; Educational/Vocational Development; and Career Planning and Exploration. In this last area, career planning and exploration, it is suggested that the awareness, knowledge, and understanding of the interrelationships of life roles and careers be addressed with clients and students. This is true particularly of the impact of careers on individual and family life, beginning with the elementary grade levels and continuing through adulthood.

Suggested for inclusion in the career development curriculum in the schools are the following (Hansen & Minor, 1989): (1) career decision making skills; (2) work and family issues in the U.S. and across cultures; (3) changing roles of men and women and gender issues; (4) changes in the work place and the job market; (5) changes in the family; (6) life-role planning; (7) economic independence and survival skills; (8) entrepreneurship and job creation; and (9) managing change, negotiation, and transitions.

It quickly becomes apparent that traditional career development models alone are insufficient to meet the needs of young women and men today. Previous models have tended to place limited emphasis on the family-career connection and too often view career planning as only focusing on paid work, with little attention to other life roles, especially family. No longer can we make effective use of only the parsimonious

trait-factor models based upon a one-career for life assumption and simply gathering information on the self and occupations to make a match. If youth are to be prepared for changing roles in work and family, as well as the changing composition and structure of the job market and labor force, more than occupational information will need to be available for life planning. These information models are appropriate at times of job search and placement and are essential at times of dislocation and unemployment but, in our view, are not adequate in the broader life span approach to career development needed today. As society and the world change, there is a simultaneous need for a movement toward holistic life planning which emphasizes balance in life roles and a more integrated approach to life planning. Thus, it is essential that we begin to broaden our career planning process to include these critical elements (Hansen, 1985).

One such model with a broader framework for the career planning process is the Integrative Life Planning (ILP) model (Hansen, 1988). Due to space limitations and the focus of this chapter, only a broad overview will be presented. An emerging concept, Integrative Life Planning is defined as a lifelong process of identifying our primary needs, roles, and goals and the consequent integration of these within ourselves, our work, and our family. ILP is interactive and relationship oriented and enables one to achieve greater satisfaction, meaning, and wholeness in one's life. Integrative life planning is a means to empower oneself in shaping the direction of one's life, managing change, and contributing to society at large. In this expanded framework for career development, there is a need to consider changing values regarding life roles, as well as the roles, contexts, and domains of human development. For example, roles to consider include work, family, learning, and leisure. Various life contexts include society, the organization (or workplace), family, and individual. If one is to be concerned about total human development, the domains include physical, intellectual, social/emotional, vocational/career, sexual, and, often omitted from life planning, the spiritual.

For purposes of this paper and due to space limitations, we will address only the roles of work and family, though it would be desirable to explore the interrelationships of learning and leisure roles, as well. Among the areas for exploration suggested in ILP are potential conflict areas in family and work, the power of gender in career; family and work priorities; societal, organizational, family, and individual goals and

values; developmental tasks and priorities at different life stages; and how roles, contexts and domains can be integrated in individuals, couples, families, and in the community.

Adding to the traditional models of career development, Integrative Life Planning opens up new ways to think about life planning—from planning for job only, to planning for life roles and values and how they relate to each other; from fitting in to the future, to creating the future; from role separation, to role flexibility; from focus on achievement only, to achievement and relationships for both women and men; from expecting stability, to expecting and managing change and transitions in both work and family; from dominator-subordinate relationships where one must be superior to the other, to equal partners; from only rational decision-making, to intuition and spirituality; from fragmentation, to wholeness. And new instruments, techniques, and practices will have to be developed to implement this expanded framework.

With a broader integrative life planning paradigm, young men and women will be able to understand aspects of their own development, gender role socialization, and stereotypes which may affect their life planning; become familiar with demographic trends and environmental factors which may influence future life patterns; clarify their life role values and priorities regarding work and family and develop action plans to implement them; think integratively and creatively about how to achieve shared roles, role flexibility, and role interchangeability; understand transitions, dilemmas, and conflict areas they may face at different stages of work and family; become aware of internal and external barriers to new work-family patterns and try to reduce them; and become aware of the place of spirituality (meaning or purpose) in integrating their life plans.

Spirituality

One often ignored aspect of development is spirituality. The traditional logical, objective, more fragmented approaches to career development, focusing primarily on rational decision-making, have not included attention to this aspect of life planning. While the word may have different meanings to different people, in the ILP model it refers to "the core of the person—the center from which meaning, self, and life understanding are generated." It is also defined as "the deep integration, wholeness, a sense of the interrelatedness of all of life."

This is the center of a more integrative approach to life planning. Some may call it one's mission, sense of purpose, a basic motivation. Joseph Campbell called it "following your bliss." It is the core motivation which gives meaning and purpose to life and gives one a feeling of mattering. It is apart from religious belief.

Young people and older people alike today seem to be searching for that something that gives meaning to life. It is not always occupation, but it has to do with the choices and decisions one makes about using time, energy, and talents. It may not necessarily be derived from a rational planning process, but a pattern which evolves, sometimes intuitively.

Couched in these terms, spirituality is being given much attention today, especially in the workplace. Seminars on "spirituality and work" have emerged, career counselors are being asked to deal with the topic, and people are beginning to engage in more reflection on work, the work ethic, and the meaning of work in relation to other roles and values. The ILP model suggests that youth should have an opportunity to begin this process early and not merely scan the occupational environment to determine which occupation fits.

Implications and Conclusions

This chapter indicates that, besides the traditional matching approaches, a broader approach is needed to the career/life planning of young people today, including a component on the relationships between family and career. We have discussed one possible approach to this—Integrative Life Planning, which moves beyond helping students fit into a single job. How can counselors and educators begin to make these changes within their own programs? Miller (1984) offers new goals for career development programs in order to strengthen the family-career connection: (1) Increase awareness of current demographic information describing changes in the family career connection; (2) Increase understanding of developmental stages for both individuals' career development and for family development; (3) Identify overlapping family-career developmental stages that create particularly heavy role demands for individual family members; (4) Provide strategies for dealing with or reducing family-career role conflicts that involve accommodation by all family members; (5) Identify barriers to the

family-career connection and develop an awareness of individual, family, employer, and community strategies that can reduce these barriers; (6) Identify benefits for both women and men that can result from the successful combination of family-career roles; and (7) Develop a family-career plan.

In addition, with new approaches there is a need for new techniques, instruments, and strategies for implementation. Some suggestions from the ILP model which allow for a broader life planning approach to include family/work linkages are the increased use of journal writing, imaging/visioning, story telling, autobiographies, life-role identification experiences, whole-mind learning activities and life-line exercises. In addition, Miller (1984) suggests: (1) Develop materials to communicate information on trends in the areas of both career and family; (2) Provide role models and mentors for both men and women to personalize future trends related to career and family, and to test various role options against reality; (3) Provide awareness experiences for parents to increase their understanding of emerging career and family role options and to explore their feelings about these options; and (4) Develop conjoint family-career counseling for married couples, or couples considering marriage, that helps them examine personal sex-role expectations, negotiate career and family roles, and develop cooperative strategies for dealing with role conflicts.

Some already established programs which implement a more integrative view of life-role planning and which may be of interest for further research, resources, and ideas include: *Catalyst*, a national non-profit organization that works with corporations and individuals to develop career and family options; the *Career Fitness Program*, which integrates some of the concepts already described; *The Inventurers*, a guide for career renewal; and *BORN FREE*, a comprehensive staff development and research effort of university faculty and graduate students collaborating with counselors, instructors, and administrators. The program attempts to create more humane educational environments that encourage students, both girls and boys, men and women, to explore and pursue the wide range of career and life-style options potentially available to them (Hansen, 1978). These programs provide a beginning framework for moving toward more integrative approaches to career and life planning with youth. They also offer a larger societal context which we believe is needed if we are to effectively prepare children and youth, not only for the next decade but for the 21st century.

Summary

In this chapter we have explored areas of change, illustrated the linkage between work and family and the resultant need for a broader integrative life planning focus in the career development process and career guidance approaches used with today's youth. We have introduced ideas and suggestions for counselors and educators to act as change agents within their own institutions and programs; to begin implementing a more holistic, integrative view of career planning, which helps youth examine all of our life roles and developmental tasks in addition to the traditional matching models of career development. We also emphasize the importance of educating for global, societal changes as a context for developing expanded career development programs for children and youth.

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Leisure and Career Development in the High School Years

Carl McDaniels

Leisure is an inherent condition in life. We work. We maintain ourselves by responding to biological necessities. We engage in non-maintenance, non-work activities. We have come to call the latter "leisure." Leisure has always been a part of human history. It was especially important to the wealthy, who were not required to work, but who enjoyed the arts, physical activities, and games. Only in recent times have larger segments of our societies been able to enjoy leisure. Now, because of shorter work days, abbreviated work weeks, more holidays, longer vacations, a variety of retirement options, and a host of other reasons, most people have more leisure. In general, however, thinking about leisure is back in the Dark Ages. The concept of leisure has not been updated as has our thinking about work. For example, there is relatively little discussion about leisure in elementary and secondary schools, higher education, or adult education. Also, scant attention is given to leisure in career planning. Leisure is truly the neglected component in life planning.

Perceptions of Leisure

There are a number of different ways to perceive leisure. Many writers see leisure as the opposite of work. Simply put: Work is what you get paid for, leisure is what you don't get paid for. Others, such as Neulinger (1981), viewed leisure as a more complex state of mind that is tied to a certain type of perceived experience. In this perspective, leisure is often viewed as a condition of the soul, not having any particular relation to time or other factors. In this view especially, the outcomes of leisure are

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the cultivation of meditation and the development of true spiritual freedom. DeGrazia (1962) viewed leisure as the state of freedom afforded by exemption from occupation or business—a state of being. Peiper (1964) described leisure as the basis of culture, a mental and spiritual attitude of nonactivity that brings inward calm and silence. In short, these visions of leisure take a classical approach that is most compatible with a philosophical framework.

Another major category of perception describes leisure as various recreational activities in which one engages. This position also embodies the idea that, unlike work, leisure is nonobligatory and is present in the absence of work. Certainly there is a more practical view of how these two conditions relate to each other. Writers such as Kando (1980) have a background in recreation and see leisure as largely recreational in nature, that is, whatever people do by way of recreational activities and whatever they define as recreational. A special section in the *Journal of Physical Education and Recreation* entitled "Leisure Today" is a frequent forum for writers having this perspective—as well as for those who hold other points of view. Another way of stating this viewpoint was attempted by Dumazedier (1967) who indicated that leisure was activity apart from obligation of work, family, and society, to which the individual turns at will.

A final consideration here may be the concept of free time or unobligated time that is central to having leisure. This means that once the biological necessities of eating, sleeping, and so forth are taken care of, then there is free time to do what is most appealing.

Because leisure was originally associated with the upper class, money has frequently been considered a condition for leisure. Often, when individuals have plenty of time to devote to leisure, they have limited financial resources. For example, under or unemployed persons may have ample time to spend on leisure activities, but little money to expend for them.

Although many leisure activities do require money, fortunately there are others that are free or inexpensive. One of the goals of leisure counseling is to help individuals find activities that are financially feasible.

Another condition that influences the acceptance of leisure is social acceptance. Ideas about what is socially acceptable in the area of leisure have changed over time, thus giving individuals more freedom to choose activities. For example, attitudes regarding activities appropriate for each sex have changed considerably during the past decade, and thus it is not uncommon to see women participating in physical activities such as

weight lifting or basketball, while men may be engaging in cooking and needlepoint.

In *The Lonely Crowd*, written almost four decades ago, Riesman (1950) called for more attention to the leisure needs of people in order to provide a means of life satisfaction in a society beginning to edge away from its almost total work orientation. Riesman suggested the need for avocational counselors to assist people in this search. Recently, his idea has been updated and expanded by a number of writers, including McDowell (1986), Overs, Taylor, and Adkins (1977), Edwards (1980), Peevy (1981), and Loesch and Wheeler (1982).

Obviously, there are many views as to what constitutes leisure, both in theory and practice, and only a small portion of them have been presented here. Because of the variety of viewpoints, it will be important to establish a clear definition of terms to be used in this chapter. A definition of leisure and related terms follows this section.

Leisure: Some Definitions

There is nothing mystical about leisure. It is a part of each person's life. As a matter of fact, some people select a lifestyle in which leisure—and not their work—becomes a crucial focus. The two primary roles—work and leisure—complement each other. Most people will have significant roles to play in both areas of life. While work may be losing some of its importance, it is still the central means of earning an income, gaining an identity, having friends, and building a lifestyle. It can be argued that, in the future, leisure will take the place of the potential diminishing importance attached to work. The trends certainly appear to be taking this direction even though during the last decade there has been a slowing down of the decline in working hours per day, per week and per month. Some older workers are now resisting the drift toward earlier retirement. Some choose not to retire at all and to have the option to work as long as they want to. As usual, the signals about the future are mixed, but most people will probably continue to have a blend of both work and leisure in their lives.

The balancing of work and leisure can be accomplished better through an understanding of how they relate to each other and to the larger process of career development. The definitions offered here are an attempt to reconcile a number of related terms and clarify their meaning for educational practitioners.

- **Work** is conscious effort aimed at producing benefits for oneself and/or for others. It is centered around the human need for productivity. It is a concept that, while obviously encompassing the economic person, goes beyond this to the broader aspects of productivity in one's total life. Work values are a part of human values. To isolate one's work from other interests, values, decisions, and activities is to dichotomize a person's life.
- **Leisure** consists of relatively self-determined activities and experiences that are available due to having discretionary income, time, and social behavior. These activities may be physical, intellectual, volunteer, creative, or a combination of these.
- **Career** means much more than one's job or occupation. It is a "lifestyle" concept that also involves a sequence of occupations and leisure-related activities in which one engages.
- **Career development** is a part of human development. A person develops—from stage to stage—the awareness, exploration, motivation, decision making, and preparation for a particular occupation or leisure activity. In short, career development equals work plus leisure (C=W+L). (See McDaniels, 1984, for further discussion of definitions.)

Relation to Human Development

Principles of human growth and development undergird every aspect of our lives—including leisure. The writings and theories of pioneers such as Erikson (1959), Havighurst (1972), and Levinson et al. (1978), have delineated the broad framework that gives direction to various institutional programs.

We have come to accept the notion of tasks, stages, phases, and—lately—seasons of our lives. We see life from the perspective of a series of unfolding events influenced by external forces such as economical, political, and social conditions. Internally, we are directed by a series of physical, psychological, social, and intellectual phases. It is contended here that career is also a part of this developmental process. Career as discussed here is composed of work and leisure activities. Career development is thus a part of the larger human development process.

McDaniels (1983) has made a proposal for leisure and life planning, describing how the two can blend together over the life span. Six stages are presented, as follows:

1. Childhood - Birth to Twelve Years
2. Adolescence - Twelve to Eighteen Years
3. Young Adulthood - Eighteen to Twenty-four Years
4. Adulthood - Twenty-five to Forty Years
5. Midlife - Forty to Sixty Years
6. Retirement - Sixty Years and Over

In viewing the developmental tasks from the leisure perspective, there are many different leisure tasks that an individual should accomplish at certain stages, but the leisure stages should not appear to be fixed and inflexible. It is possible for the individual who may experience difficulty in mastering certain leisure developmental tasks to return to earlier tasks in order to acquire the necessary foundation before attempting later leisure tasks. An example of this may be found in the 70-year-old person who wants to make ceramic items but must first master some skills that might have been learned more easily in an earlier developmental stage. In essence, flexibility is a key component in all leisure developmental stages.

It is best to subdivide the stage of childhood into preschool and elementary school years, because in the first five years of life, the home is the major influence in children's development, but, during ages six to twelve, school also becomes a factor. Childhood is an important stage because of the great opportunity to become aware of what leisure activities are available and to try them out.

In brief, the preschool years are important building blocks in the establishment of leisure awareness. During this stage, children can begin to learn about the wide range of leisure activities, as well as what they like and dislike, what is fun for them, and what is not. They will also have an opportunity to observe adult values in relation to work and leisure roles played by the significant people in their lives.

The elementary school years, roughly ages 5 through 12, are a time of expansive opportunities for leisure awareness. The basic human physical, psychological, intellectual, and social dimensions and capabilities grow at a rapid pace during this period, and new activities can be introduced. Usually, eye-hand coordination improves. In addition, manual dexterity and small and large muscles come under control. Elementary school-age children need to be made aware of a wide range of leisure-related activities, events, and experiences. They need the encouragement and the freedom to try out as many things as possible. They need to understand that not being good at everything is to be

expected. They can learn about their different abilities and interests through leisure. In encouraging the development of leisure awareness, the multiple dimensions of children must be recognized, including their intellectual, physical, creative, social, artistic, and mechanical characteristics and interests.

If all of these dimensions are valued equally, then every child should be able to have some important and genuine success with leisure activities. The continued development of the leisure self-concept is important. There should be ample opportunity to test and refine likes and dislikes to fit into this larger self-understanding.

Adolescence—Ages 13–18: The Exploration Stage

Adolescence, ages 13–18, is the time when most individuals mature physically, socially, economically, intellectually, and emotionally. These traits all play a role in the development and expansion of the leisure activities in which people may engage later in life. Adolescence is also a time for exploring leisure.

The physical growth of adolescents is very obvious. During this period, young people approach physical maturity, but size is not the only physical change. They are also reaching full adult strength and coordination. Full development of sexuality is taking place. Fine finger dexterity is also present now. In general, adolescents become able to function physically as adults.

Adolescents are also developing social interaction skills. A new social awareness is emerging; social problems are perceived, perhaps for the first time. There are new opportunities to try out these skills, both with peers and adults. Group activities become more important.

During this stage, people may also begin to have paid work experience, which gives them the beginnings of economic independence. They may now have money to spend in ways that reflect personal interests. These first jobs also provide important information about the world of work.

Adolescents are also maturing intellectually and emotionally. During this period, they are expected to make serious decisions about both education and vocations. Typically, adolescents are involved in establishing a clearer sense of self-identity and self-concept. Although the

family is still a very important influence, adolescents begin to break away and become independent persons.

The possibility for new and deeper life experiences now exists. Activities and interests all continue from previous years, but adolescents have the ability to participate more fully. Leisure concepts can emerge because adolescents are able to act independently in pursuing individual interests. Listening and seeing with a new maturity enables them to participate at adult levels.

Many activities that are begun at this age will continue throughout life. However, it may be that if interests are not developed at this point, they may be closed or at least more difficult to explore in later life. Noe (1969) stated that leisure is an instrument of social change that, during adolescence, forms one of the building blocks of one's value system.

The Influence of the Schools

The schools need to foster an awareness of the importance of the leisure potential for all youth. This can be done through classroom activities, extracurricular activities, volunteer activities, and work-leisure activities.

Classroom Activities

The schools need to include leisure-type, not just employment-related, activities in the classroom. The vocational aspects of all subjects are extremely important, but the relationship of leisure to history, science, math, English, music, art, and physical education should be made explicit to students. Engaging students interest in the subject matter as well as emphasizing the importance of work and leisure as a part of career development and life is critical. Some suggestions on how to do this follow.

Courses in the areas of home economics and technology education are generally regarded by students (and often by teachers) as vocational only. They could also be taught by emphasizing leisure possibilities for all students, and stressing the enjoyment to be gained from mastery of the competencies involved as well as the marketable skills. Both boys and girls should be encouraged to take both types of courses.

Students could examine leisure from a historical perspective, looking at people's leisure during various historical periods. History presents

options for leisure activities through an interest in such things as a specific historical era or location, antiquing as a hobby, different kinds of collections, travel, or archaeological digs. Almost anything that students are interested in will have a history—e.g., music, games, art, volunteering.

Courses in English can introduce students to several leisure pursuits. Reading can be pursued just for enjoyment or in order to learn more about something in which the student is already interested. Adolescents can be encouraged to write journals, stories, plays, poems, or movie scripts for their own enjoyment. They can go to lectures or poetry readings for their own pleasure, as well as sharpen their observational skills through attendance at plays, and movies, and by watching television.

A student who has a butterfly collection or who is interested in rock displays should be able to add something to a science class, even if unable to excel in the traditional verbal methods. Science could introduce students to new possibilities for leisure time as well as add dimensions to already established interests.

Extracurricular Activities

School clubs and activities provide an opportunity for students to learn about leisure concepts and give them a chance to try out interests. Athletics are a major thrust of many high school activity programs and should be designed to offer equal opportunities for all students. At this age the chance to participate actively and learn how to play a sport teaches the skills people can use in a lifetime of leisure activity. Participation can also lead to greater enjoyment as spectators in later life. Individual activities such as bowling, skating, skiing, jogging, swimming, hiking, and golf also need to be promoted.

Equally important are competitive nonphysical activities. For adolescents, music often involves not only individual skill but also progression in comparison to others students. This can be true for playing musical instruments as well as for singing. Often there are tryouts for musicals, the choir, and the bank, in addition to opportunities for participation in school or community music offerings, regardless of skill level or ability. Debating and public speaking also provide an area for competition in the high school that can lead to leisure activities in later life. At this age, students are interested in and able to participate in games such as backgammon, chess, and bridge. These activities are also easily continued into later life and may become major leisure outlets.

Volunteer Activities

School can play a major role in encouraging volunteer activities. As a useful service to fellow human beings, volunteering is an accepted practice in American society. The sense of importance attached to volunteering is normally gained early and develops and matures throughout life. Volunteering can, of course, be a source of major life satisfaction. It can be introduced in elementary and high school classroom study in social studies or English through lessons that teach about the activity from an historical perspective. All school-age students can be introduced to volunteering by models. There are dozens of ways to use volunteers in the schools, such as in art, music, and mathematics classes. In these days of tight budgets, they can be a saving feature to some instructional programs. Once children understand the concept of volunteering, they can be given the opportunity to volunteer themselves. The school patrol and peer tutors are visible examples of students helping students. There are many places around the school where similar useful services can be rendered by volunteers, such as in the school nurse's office, library, administrative office, guidance office, cafeteria, and in classes such as art, music, and physical education. All students can be helped to understand how volunteering helps develop skills that can lead to future employment. See Hayes and McDaniels (1980) for more on this topic.

School Related Work-Leisure Experiences

Adolescents can participate in part-time work experience through the school or school-related programs, or by obtaining jobs on their own. Jobs give adolescents practice in managing their time, since they will need to allocate it among school, work, and leisure. Jobs may also help adolescents learn to budget money. Part-time work at this age can be an opportunity to try out career and leisure interests. Students may be able to find jobs related to leisure interests. In this way, leisure activities that they have developed in earlier years can play a role in their occupational exploration. Part-time work may confirm that a person does not want to pursue an area as an occupation, but would prefer to retain it as a leisure activity.

Peer Influence

Through leisure activities with peers, adolescents have many opportunities to participate in social interactions, a great many of which are carried out in groups. They may explore new interests with friends and talk with them about leisure activities. Involvement in leisure also provides a way to meet new friends. Real sources of peer satisfaction may emerge from excelling in a leisure activity such as singing, dancing, writing, building furniture, and cake decorating. Adolescents frequently feel a great deal of peer pressure to do some things and not to do others. Interacting with peers through leisure activities helps to develop such qualities as leadership and teamwork, and may help adolescents to become at ease in social situations.

At the end of this stage, adolescents should be able to function autonomously. Either alone or in groups, they should be able to initiate and carry out activities without adult management. This self-reliance increases the ability to follow interests and to participate in-depth in leisure activities.

Family Influence

Although adolescents become increasingly independent, the family is still the single most important influence. Parents continue to function as models, and adolescents continue to derive many important attitudes about the use of leisure time from their parents. Parents may still expect adolescents to participate with the family in leisure activities, and this expectation may be a source of friction. Some activities, such as travel, may be allowed only with the family. Parents may determine the pace of out-of-school interests by setting time limits on activities and passing judgment on what activities are and are not appropriate for the adolescent. The parents may also play a role in non-school activities through their use or non-use of community resources. Adolescents will confront the values of their families regarding leisure. The presence, as well as the absence, of leisure activities poses a challenge. Hummel and McDaniels (1982) offer a more detailed account of how the role of the family in leisure unfolds.

Influence of Non-School Agencies

Adolescents have many opportunities for group involvement through organizations that are not related to the schools. These groups include community agencies, religious organizations, YMCA or YWCA, Scouting, Youth Clubs, and 4-H. When adolescents avail themselves of these resources, they establish a pattern that may carry over to later life. In many areas, the non-school agencies rather than schools have traditionally been the main promoters of leisure activities for youth. A new, stronger relationship is needed between school and non-school agencies for the benefit of adolescents. A strengthened relationship heightens the opportunities and possibilities for young people because they begin to understand that the community provide facilities and may expect that it will continue to do so. Having benefited from the presence of community groups and organizations, they may also work to support them as adults.

Through community groups, adolescents can learn new skills, be introduced to new ideas for the use of leisure time, and be provided with models who believe that the use of leisure time is important throughout life. Leisure activities offered by clubs and recreational groups range from primarily social activities to drama, art, music, crafts, and sports. Activities may involve large groups, as in play production, or may be pursued individually, as in painting. Adolescents often learn how to use certain skills in recreational groups, and then carry these out as adults on their own.

Communication technology and the media are important influences on the leisure of adolescents, both in how time is spent and in portraying possible uses of time. Television, movies, books, magazines, newspapers, video games, spectator sports, and the radio are all aspects of American adolescents' lives. Leisure habits established at this age can be carried on throughout life.

Why Not Find an Occupation You Enjoy?

For many people, probably not everybody, the answer would be why not?—Let's find an occupation that I really like if I can. The place to look for the answer to this question often is in one's **leisure time pursuits.** Where else would you look, because from childhood on people

freely choose what they like to do in their leisure time. This ability to choose leads to freedom, satisfaction and pleasure. This is the freedom to choose what you want to do, with whom you want to do it, where you wish to go, when you want to go there, and how you will find enjoyment. It is so obvious—really just common sense. **Why not find an occupation you enjoy?** In fact, many people do exactly that and seem to be better satisfied when their work and leisure interests are parallel. After all, work interests tend to grow out of leisure experiences. For example, as children, if we learn to enjoy music, art, or dance, we are then fortunate; if we are able to develop some skill in these areas, then we can enjoy them even more. Then with teaching, time, and talent these leisure areas may lead to part- or full-time work as a musician, artist, or dancer.

Leisure-time activities contribute to personal development in many ways. Through such activities as running for student council, playing golf, sewing a new garment, or playing drums in a band, skills which may be useful throughout life are developed. Such experiences help crystallize ideas about interests and abilities and aid in making career and other major lifetime decisions.

Leisure-time activities may also lead one to useful and productive occupations. For example, skill and knowledge acquired playing tennis may lead directly to a career operating a sporting goods shop, teaching others how to play the sport, or working as wholesale representative for a sporting goods manufacturer. Sewing a new shirt or blouse may lead to work as a tailor/seamstress, a job in fashion design or fabric merchandising, or a career in teaching sewing and other home economics skills.

What follows in Figure 1 lists some of the different leisure activities open to most high school students, college students, or adults and provides examples of occupations to which these activities may lead. In every case, the list of career fields is suggestive, not exhaustive. Also, many of these fields have only a limited number of jobs; therefore the competition for positions in many of the occupations is keen. Perhaps the most obvious example, and well known to many, is the competition for jobs in professional athletics. For example, nearly 21 million boys play high school football, basketball, or baseball, only 111,000 do so in college, and only 200 or so turn professional each year in all these sports. Competition for other types of jobs may be somewhat less rigorous, but does exist. Despite the existence of competition, jobs or opportunities to start a business exist and many people find satisfying careers each year.

Careers in some leisure-related fields, of course, may offer less than lifetime jobs, and career planning must include both immediate prospects as well as long-range job implications. An example of this is the singer whose voice may fade long before the age of normal retirement or the professional athlete whose active participation may, at best, end in his or her twenties or thirties.

For some persons, leisure activities and related jobs may suggest opportunities for part-time work built around a compatible main job. These include such jobs as church organist, summer camp worker, or free-lance writer or artist. In all fields, special opportunities exist in management-type jobs such as the dancer who operates a dance studio, a musically-inclined person who manages (as contrasted with conducting) a symphony orchestra, or the actor who turns to running a summer theater. For more on this idea, see McDaniels (1989).

Part-Time Leisure Interests

The pleasure of leisure activities can be continued throughout a life-time without actually leading to an occupation. Very few who enjoy playing football will be able to find full-time employment relating to football. The person may, however, enjoy volunteer coaching or officiating in their hours off their wage-earning job. Many people have jobs out of economic necessity and obtain a sense of satisfaction and pleasure out of their leisure interests. The examples shown in Figure 2 illustrate how leisure activities may be pursued as leisure rather than as occupations thus contributing to a satisfying lifestyle.

Leisure Activity	Leisure-Related Occupations
	Music
Singing	Choir director, entertainer, voice teacher, music teacher
Instrumental	Director, performer, instrumental instructor, music group manager
Composing	Composer, arranger, music critic, record company employee
Dancing	Professional dancer, choreographer, dance teacher
	Art
Drawing	Artist, cartoonist, art teacher
Painting	Painter, painting instructor
Sculpting	Sculpting, art critic, art gallery employee
Glass Blowing	Glass blower, glass company employee, glass salesman
Photography	Photographer, illustrator, advertising person
Pottery Making	Potter, kiln operator, ceramic designer
	Crafts
Needlepoint	Designer, shop operator, writer about crafts, craft wholesaler
Weaving	Professional weaver, teacher, designer, show owner
Macrame	Teacher, professional macrame artist, designer
Woodcraft	Carver, wood furniture designer, furniture refinisher, cabinet maker, carpenter
Glass Cutting	Laboratory equipment designer, glass designer, shop operator
Sewing	Tailor, seamstress, teacher, fabric store operator
Cooking	Chef, home economist, dietician
Baking	Baker, home economist, cooking writer or editor
Embroidery	Craft teacher, craft designer, craft shop operator

Figure 1. Leisure Activities and Related Occupations

Leisure Activity	Leisure-Related Occupations
	Outdoor Activities
Backpacking	Outdoor clothing store operator, camp director, travel guide
Sailing	Marina operator, sail maker, waterfront director, sailor
Swimming	Pool operator, swimming teacher, recreation worker, waterfront director
Gardening	Farmer, farm store operator, agronomist, botanist
Bicycling	Cycling shop operator, bicycle repair person
Raising Animals	Veterinarian, pet shop operator
Horseback Riding	Veterinarian, animal caretaker, animal trainer, blacksmith
Camping	Camp director, camp counselor, youth agency worker
	Individual and Team Sports
Baseball	Player, coach, teacher, camp director
Football	Trainer, professional player, coach, youth agency worker
Basketball	Player, coach, teacher, recreation aide
Hockey	Professional player, coach, teacher, skating rink operator
Bowling	Bowling machine repair person, bowling alley operator, bowling professional
Tennis	Teaching pro, tennis shop operator, tennis club operator
Golf	Teaching golf pro, golf shop operator, golf course superintendent
Archery	Teacher, sporting goods salesman, camp operator
Skiing	Winter resort operator, instructor, ski shop owner
Track	Sporting goods store operator, outdoor facilities designer, wholesale representative
Sports (all)	Sports reporter, radio or television announcer

Figure 1 (continued)

Leisure Activity	Leisure-Related Occupations
	Out of School - Community Activities
Boy/Girl Scouts	Scout leader, youth worker, social worker
4-H	Camp leader, teacher, extension agent
Boys/Girls Clubs	Teacher, recreation leader, social agency administrator
Tri-Hi-Y, Hi-Y	YMCA-YWCA worker, youth agency worker, recreation department worker
Religious	Youth worker, minister, rabbi, priest, director of youth group
	In School - Extra Curricular
Art Club	Artist, designer, photographer, teacher
Debate Club	Lawyer, teacher, politician, announcer
Radio Club	Electronics work, radio engineer, electrical engineer, military service, communications worker
Photo Club	Photographer, photo shop operator, camera repair person
Health Club	Nurse, physician, medical technician, dentist, orderly
Student Government	Politician, lawyer, community leader, business manager
Newspaper	Reporter, journalist, printer
Choral Club	Singer, music or voice teacher, arranger, music critic
Drama Club	Actor, actress, director, set designer, drama teacher
Fellowship of Christian Athletes	Youth leader, religious worker, teacher
Future Farmers of America	Farmer, extension agent, farm business worker
Future Teachers of America	Teacher, counselor, youth worker
Future Homemakers of America	Home economist, interior designer, extension agent

Figure 1 (continued)

Leisure Activity	Leisure-Related Occupations
	In School - Extra Curricular (continued)
Future Business Leaders of America	Secretary, accountant, clerk, typist, teller
Science Club	Engineer, scientist, technician
Distributive Education Club	Sales person, store operator, personnel worker
Industrial Cooperative Club	Electrician, mechanic, brick mason, engineer
Travel Club	Travel agent, airline or railroad agent, sales person

Figure 1 (continued)

Initial Leisure Interest	Adult Occupation	Adult Leisure Activity
Animal Raising	Licensed Practical Nurse (LPN)	Organizer of local American Kennel Club
Singing	Postman	Barber shop quartet
Macrame	Secretary	Teaching macrame at YWCA
Bicycling	Teacher	Family bicycle trips
Baseball	Plumber	Coaching Little League
Bowling	Construction worker	Company bowling league
Drama	Dentist	Act in local amateur plays
Sewing	Computer operator	Designing and sewing own clothes
Cooking	Assembly worker	Gourmet club member
Flower growing	Salesperson	Member of garden club

Figure 2. Part-time Leisure Interests

Implications for Counselors and Teachers

In order for teachers and counselors to feel confident in emphasizing the relationship of leisure to academic or vocational subjects, the topic must be included in pre-service preparation programs. Besides instruction on the possibilities of leisure, preservice students in education and counseling need opportunities to expand their own interests and activities. They will be functioning as important models to their own students and should be able to do so adequately in the realm of leisure. It would follow that leisure education and leisure counseling in inservice training for teachers and counselors would also be appropriate.

Classroom and counseling time can be well spent in helping students to examine their personal leisure. For instance, students can keep a log on how they actually spend leisure time, and then compare that record with what they would really like to be doing. They can set goals that they would like to reach through leisure activities. The use of leisure should correspond with the students' own values. Interest inventories, designed to examine vocational interests, can also be related to leisure interests. Local inventories can be developed. Checklists of possible activities can help make students aware of the various activities that are available. An exposure to a variety of opportunities will make possible the selection that is most appropriate for the individual. Students should be encouraged to take advantage of the opportunities offered at this time in their lives to sample new activities and learn skills that will be of value to them later in life.

The school staff can facilitate collaboration with non-school agencies. A large school may have difficulty providing enough opportunities for all students. For example, every interested student might not be able to have a part in a school play, but students could be made aware of community drama groups. This kind of referral would require that counselors and teachers be familiar with the resources in the community and judge their suitability for students.

When the school system recognizes that leisure activities are important to the total development of the individual, then all of the capabilities and talents of students can be encouraged.

The world does not reward people only for the intellectual talents recognized by educational institutions. People are also valued because they can make other contributions. Teachers and counselors can use leisure activities and interests to make all students feel that they are

worthwhile and successful people by recognizing and encouraging all forms of abilities and talents.

Classroom activities can relate course work to leisure. Students can be encouraged to contribute on the basis of their leisure interests. A student in a history class who has sewing or designing abilities might research an historical period and then dress dolls in the appropriate costume for that time. In a math class, a student might be able to examine the geometrical configurations in clothing. Another student who is interested in art could examine the importance of accuracy, measurement, angles, and geometry through string art. While it may be impractical to do this with every lesson in every class, it does give students a chance to demonstrate their individual and varied leisure activities. For a systematic appraisal of such activities, teachers can use the Lancaster and Odum (1976) or Kimeldorf (1989) publications.

Teachers and counselors need to share their own activities with students. The biology teacher who shares a camping experience with students, either by taking them along or telling them about the camping trip, is teaching them how the study of biology relates to one's own leisure time. A chemistry teacher who loves to cook could point out the relationship between chemistry and cooking. In the same way, a history teacher who goes on archaeological digs could share an artifacts collection with students. Because teachers are also role models, it is important that they reflect their private interests through their professional teaching lives.

Conclusion

Because of the structure of the educational system, students are expected to make both educational and vocational decisions during adolescence. Teachers and counselors should be helping students examine the relationship between leisure and work at this time. Students can be helped to see how a leisure interest could be related to an occupation. They can also choose an occupation that will allow them to continue their preferred leisure activities. However, before they can make a choice, they must be aware of the options open to them. It is simply not enough to expose students only to information about the world of work and ignore the world of leisure. Adolescence must be a time for exploring both.

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How to Remodel and Revitalize Your School Guidance Program

Norman C. Gysbers

School counselors are expected to be involved in a greater number and variety of guidance and counseling activities than ever before. They are expected to work in the curriculum; conduct placement, follow-up activities, and follow-through activities; do specialized testing for various groups; and do community work with business and industry personnel. In addition, they are expected to continue such activities as crisis counseling, teacher and parent consultation, and testing, scheduling, and other administrative/clerical duties.

They may want to respond to these new expectations but often find that the pressure of their existing duties interferes with or actually prevents them from doing so. At the same time, they find that many current organizational patterns of guidance place it in the category of ancillary services. What is worse, this reinforces the practice of having them do quasi-guidance or non-guidance tasks because such tasks can be justified as being of service to someone.

The challenge that counselors face, therefore, is how to make the transition from the ancillary services concept of guidance to that of a comprehensive, developmental program—a program that is an equal partner with other programs in education. Making this transition is a complex and difficult task because it involves carrying out duties mandated by the current organizational structure at the same time as planning and trying out new duties derived from a new organizational structure. It can be done, but it is difficult, time consuming, and often frustrating. In a real sense, counselors are caught in the situation of trying to remodel their program while they are living in it.

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As we approach the 1990's, it is clear that traditional approaches to organizing guidance in the schools are giving way to a newer approach. What does this newer approach look like?

What are the assumptions on which it is based?

First, guidance is a **program.** As a program, it has characteristics similar to other programs in education, including the following:

- Learner outcomes (competencies) in such areas as self-knowledge and interpersonal relations, decision-making and planning, and knowledge of life roles, including worker and learner roles.
- Activities and processes to assist learners to achieve these outcomes
- Professionally recognized personnel
- Materials and resources

Second, guidance programs are **developmental** and **comprehensive.** They are developmental in that guidance activities are conducted on a regular and planned basis to assist all school youth to achieve specified competencies. Although immediate and crisis needs of individuals are to be met, a major focus of a developmental program is to provide all students with experiences to help them grow and develop. Guidance programs are comprehensive in that a full range of activities and services are provided, including assessment, information, counseling, placement, follow-up, and follow-through.

Third, guidance programs focus on the development of students' **competencies** not just the remediation of their deficiencies. To some, a major focus in guidance is on the problems which individuals have and obstacles they may face. This emphasis is important, but it should not be dominant. If it is emphasized in isolation, attention often focuses on what is wrong with students, not what is right. Obviously, problems and obstacles need to be identified and remediated, but they should not overshadow the existing or potential competencies of individuals. A major emphasis in guidance programs should be on helping students identify the competencies they already have and assisting them to develop new ones.

Finally, guidance programs are built on a **team approach.** A comprehensive developmental program of guidance is based on the assumption that all staff are active participants. At the same time, it should be understood that professionally certified counselors are central to the

program as coordinators. In this role, they provide direct services to students, as well as work as consultants with other members of the guidance team.

The Improvement Process

With these assumptions in mind, you may be wondering at this point: Can school counselors actually improve their program? If so, what steps and issues are involved? What follows is a brief review of these steps and issues.

Decide You Want To Change

To begin the improvement process, it is imperative that the school counselors involved make a decision that they want to change. They need to decide to take charge of their own destiny rather than leave it to fate or for others to decide. This may take some time, but after obtaining consensus, albeit reluctantly perhaps on the part of some, that change could and should take place. Approval for the revitalized comprehensive guidance program is then obtained from administration.

Get Organized

Once a decision has been made that program improvement is necessary, an improvement plan is established. Depending upon the size of the district this may involve forming a steering committee made up of counselors and administrators from each level involved. The major task of this committee is to oversee the improvement process from beginning to end in order to develop a comprehensive K-12 program. In addition, an advisory committee made up of school and community members also should be considered. The major task for this group is to provide advice and counsel as well as support and encouragement. In one school district, the functions of these two groups was combined into one; the committee members consisted of a school board member, a high school principal, two parents, an elementary teacher, an elementary social worker, several high school counselors, and the director of pupil personnel services.

Select Your Improved Program Structure

One of the first decisions needed at this phase of the program improvement process is a decision concerning overall program structures. What should that structure be? Traditionally, the answer has been the services model (orientation, assessment, information, counseling, placement, and follow-up), the process model (counseling, consulting, and coordinating), and the duties model. Perhaps your current program uses one of these or some combination of the three. It is suggested that in place of one of these structures, a new structure be adopted, a structure more in keeping with the developmental approach to guidance. The suggested components are as follows:

Structural Components

Definition. The definition identifies the centrality of guidance within the educational process and delineates, in outcome terms, the competencies individuals will possess as a result of their involvement in the program.

Rationale. The rationale discusses the importance of guidance as an equal partner in the educational process and provides reasons why students in our society need to acquire the competencies that will accrue to them as a result of their involvement in a comprehensive, developmental program.

Assumptions. Assumptions are principles that shape and guide the program.

Program Components

Guidance Curriculum. The guidance curriculum contains the majority of K-12 guidance activities. The curriculum contains the career, personal/social and educational competencies to be achieved by students and the activities to assist students to reach them. It is designed to serve all students.

Individual Planning. Included in this component are guidance activities to assist students to understand and monitor their growth and development and to take action on their next steps, educationally or occupationally, with placement and follow-through assistance.

Responsive Services. This component includes such activities as personal crisis counseling, information giving, and consulting with school staff, parents, and community agencies.

System Support. Included in this component are activities necessary to support the work in the other three program components. Such activities as staff development, community outreach, public relations, and work with other departments in the school are included.

Assess Your Current Program

This step involves generating a list of all the activities school counselors are involved in during the course of a school year. As this process unfolds it will become apparent that some activities listed as guidance activities are, in reality, school administration activities, not student development activities.

Over the years, they may have been assigned to the guidance department for one reason or another, without much thought given to how they fit together as a guidance program. These activities become the target for elimination as the improved program is implemented.

This step also involves keeping track of staff time during the school year. It is recommended that the four program components be used to keep track of the time. This provides the opportunity to see how time is spent currently and to project the desired amounts of time for the improved program.

Decide on Student Competencies and Guidance Activities

At this point, but often earlier, consideration is given to the student outcomes (competencies) of the program. It is recommended that an appropriate number of student competencies (from 10 to 15) be chosen to be acquired at the end of specific blocks of time; for example, by the end of grade 6, grade 8, and grade 12. It is further recommended that the competencies focus on such topics as self-knowledge and interpersonal skills, career planning and decision making, knowledge of life roles including the work role, study skills, learning-to-learn skills, and the like. Although most of the competencies will be attended to as a part of the guidance curriculum, activities in the other program components also will help students acquire them, too. Once student competencies have been identified, the next step is to choose appropriate guidance activities and resources that will aid students to acquire the competencies.

Modify Guidance Program Facilities

The facilities required by an improved guidance program are somewhat different than those required by a traditional program. More open space; space for education, occupational, and personal-social information; space for computerized information systems; and space for small group activities is required. A guidance or resource center should be planned to become the activity center for the guidance program. Thus, if guidance counseling space was designed for the more traditional program the challenge is to change that space to a center concept, a place where students can browse, can be included in small or large group activities, and can be accommodated in an individual counseling situation. Library and guidance services often are complimentary and can be a cost and time efficient way of serving students. A guidance center adjacent to the library has many advantages.

Decide What Stays and What Goes

The improved program is not an add-on to the current program. Decisions need to be made about which activities from the current program are to be displaced to make room for the desired activities of the improved program. Information gathered from the staff time analysis forms the basis for making decisions. A comparison is made between time spent by counselors in the current program and what the staff feels should be spent. Those activities that do not fit are dropped.

It is important to note that the decisions made about what stays and what goes are based on the assumption that counselors are working 100 percent of their time in the current program and that the improved program requires a redistribution of that time.

Develop Time/Activity Schedules

An important step at this point is the development of time and activity schedules. Here counselors lay out, on a weekly or monthly basis, what activities they are involved in based on the four program components. These schedules should be distributed widely, but particularly to administrators and teachers.

This provides them with an indication of the guidance program and the time involvement of counselors as they carry out the program.

Initiate Staff Development and Public Relations

Often, because of new tasks involved in the improved program, the skills of the counseling staff need to be updated.

Frequently, the challenge of carrying out the guidance curriculum presents the greatest opportunity for conducting staff development. How are structured groups conducted? How are lesson plans constructed? These are the most often-asked questions. In addition, the continuing challenge of meeting the needs and crises of young people and their parents also requires staff development. Single parents, eating disorders, and substance abuse are but a few of the topics that require continued attention.

Good public relations begins with the establishment of a solid and sound guidance program. Once the establishment of the program is well underway, then various public relations activities should be initiated to inform school personnel and the community about the changes that have taken place. The advisory committee discussed previously can be a major source of public relations assistance and community networking.

Evaluate Your Improved Program

Evaluation often is considered the last step in the program improvement process. Right? Wrong! This statement is wrong because the entire program improvement process is evaluation based. Evaluation is ongoing, providing continuous feedback during all steps of the process. It is not something done only at the end of a program in order to see how it came out. This means that as the improvement process is taking place, procedures are set in place to monitor and report progress. Be alert to possible unanticipated side effects. At the same time, begin establishing program standards for activities in each of the program components and the evidence that would be necessary to meet these standards. In effect, the improved program structure becomes the basis for the evaluation of the program and the counselors' role in it. Thus, counselors will be evaluated based on their performance in carrying out the guidance program.

Some Final Thoughts

The guidance program structure should not be adopted without paying attention to the basic assumptions that form its foundation. For example,

one assumption might be "a guidance program is developmental." Another could be "a guidance program is an integral and mainstream part of the overall educational program of the school."

In addition, a comprehensive, developmental program, by definition, leads to a guidance curriculum and structured group experiences for all students. Such a program de-emphasizes administrative and clerical tasks, one-to-one counseling only, and limited accountability. Such a program is proactive rather than reactive. The counselors who staff it are expected to do more than be in their offices waiting for students to drop in. They are expected to do personal and crisis counseling, but, in addition, are developing and conducting activities for all students.

Finally, being involved in improving a guidance program may seem overwhelming, but the reward can be great. More pride in being a counselor often is evident. More support for guidance is generated because guidance is no longer seen as an ancillary service. Instead, guidance is understood as an essential partner. Most important of all, students, parents, teachers, administrators, and the community are served more directly and effectively.

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*This paper was adapted from an article by Norman C. Gysbers which appeared in Whitfield, E. A., Drier, H. N., & Hickey, D. (Eds.). (1985). *Improving Career Development Through Counselor Education Programs*. Columbus, Ohio: Ohio Department of Education.

ERIC/CAPS

Educational Resources Information Center—ERIC

ERIC is a decentralized nationwide information system founded in 1966 and currently sponsored by the Office of Educational Research and Improvement within the U.S. Department of Education. It is the largest education related database in the world. ERIC is designed to collect educational documents and journal articles and to make them readily available through a number of products and services, e.g., the ERIC database, abstract journals, microfiche collections, online and CD-ROM computer searches, document reproductions, and information analysis publications. The ERIC audience is equally wideranging and includes teachers, counselors, administrators, supervisors, policy makers, librarians, media specialists, researchers, students, parents, and other educators and interested persons.

Counseling and Personnel Services Clearinghouse—CAPS

CAPS is one of the 16 subject-oriented clearinghouses of the ERIC system. CAPS' exceptionally broad coverage includes K–12 counseling and guidance, post-secondary and adult counseling services, and human resource development in business, industry and government. Among the topics addressed are:

- preparation, practice and supervision of counseling professionals
- development of theoretical constructs
- research on programs and practices
- interviewing and testing
- group work
- career planning and development
- employee assistance programs (EAPs)
- training and development
- marriage and family counseling
- student activities
- services to special populations (substance abusers, public offenders, students-at-risk)
- program evaluation

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Standout features of this monograph include both the variety and usefulness of the topics covered, e.g., "The Changing Face of the Workplace: 1986–2000," "Delivering Career Development Outcomes Through Vocational Education," and "Preparing Youth for Changing Roles and Tasks in Society, Work, and Family," as well as the expertise of the authors. Whether you are a counselor, career development specialist, or progam developer you will find this a rewarding book to read and a highly useful reference tool.